



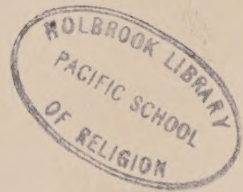
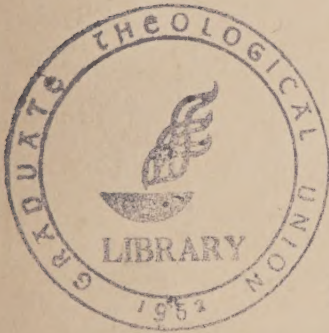
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TESTING THE KNOWLEDGE of RIGHT AND WRONG

HUGH HARTSHORNE
MARK A. MAY
AND OTHERS



Price Seventy-five Cents

THE RELIGIOUS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
Monograph No. 1

July, 1927

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TESTING THE KNOWLEDGE OF RIGHT AND WRONG

SIX ARTICLES


HUGH HARTSHORNE
MARK A. MAY
AND OTHERS



1. General Description of the Tests.
2. Administration of the Tests and Preliminary Statistical Results.
3. The Code Value of Moral Knowledge Scores.
4. Some Probable Sources of Moral Knowledge in Children.
5. The Relation of Standards to Behavior in Individuals.
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Reprinted from Religious Education, Issues of February, April, August, October and December, 1926, and May, 1927

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TESTING THE KNOWLEDGE OF RIGHT AND WRONG

HUGH HARTSHORNE AND MARK A. MAY*

FIRST ARTICLE

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE TESTS

The Character Education Inquiry is devoting itself to the problem of how to measure character. For convenience the field of character study in which tests are called for has been divided as follows:

1. Mental content and skills, the so-called intellectual factors.
2. Desires, attitudes, motives, etc., the dynamic factors.
3. Social behavior, the performance factors.
4. Self-control, the relation of all these factors to one another and to social-self-organization.

The first three items are of course abstractions from the unitary process of social experience mentioned in 4. This is the concrete reality we hope to get at, but for practical purposes it has seemed best to approach it in a somewhat piecemeal fashion, much as a doctor examines the composition of the blood, the reflexes, skin color, and so forth, to aid him in making a diagnosis of the condition of the individual as a whole, even while recognizing that blood-count, taken by itself, is relatively an insignificant item.

The series of articles of which this is the first will report the efforts so far made to test item one by means of paper and pencil tests requiring word responses.

The investigators' interest in what words may reveal of moral knowledge is not based on the assumption that knowledge and behavior are highly correlated. One of our problems is to discover what the relation is between behavior and the knowledge of right and wrong. Furthermore, we do not assume that word behavior and a true knowledge of right and wrong are necessarily correlated. It may be that overt action is a far better indication of what a man really knows about right and wrong than his verbal responses are. If this be the case, there remains the very significant problem of the relation between what he says and what he knows on the one side, and the relation between what he says and what he does or would do, on the other. Words have a social significance that cannot be ignored. The heart of the problem of character lies in the adjustment of persons to one another, and this adjustment is never complete until it has become articulate. Even the extreme behaviorists write books.

It should also be remembered that the fundamental folkways are rather completely reflected in sayings, rules, slogans, definitions, and what not, and are here far more accessible than if studied only as mores. One can find out by word responses whether an individual is aware of certain customs

* Dr. May and Dr. Hartshorne are the investigators for the Character Education Inquiry which is being conducted by the Institute of Educational Research at Teachers College, Columbia University, in cooperation with the Institute of Social and Religious Research.

In this series of articles the writers have described in some detail one section of the work of the Inquiry. They have been asked to be as specific as possible in order that persons not familiar with the procedures used in test building and the application of tests to particular problems may be fully informed concerning the dangers, difficulties, pitfalls and values of statistical methods as applied to the study of one phase of moral behavior.

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even though his possession of a custom in the form of a habit may not be thus revealed.

In the study of moral knowledge through word responses we have tried to keep distinct the power of making discriminations and the subject matter, or experiences in which discriminations are made. The one is a factor in pure intelligence. The other is a matter of experience. We have no reason to suppose that the capacity to make ethical discriminations is not adequately measured by standard intelligence tests. Nor do we have reason to suppose that the *ability* to make such discriminations *is* measured by such tests. That is to say, experience with ethical situations and in making ethical judgments is required in addition to native intelligence.

This may be illustrated by reference to the relations between the ability to do arithmetic problems and general intelligence. From the results of an intelligence test which contains no arithmetic problems it is possible to predict the probable success a person would have in learning arithmetic. But a highly intelligent person who has had no training in fundamental processes in arithmetic would make a poor showing on an arithmetic test.

On the contrary, a person possessing the ability to make fine discriminations of any sort, ethical included, must possess the necessary intelligence. A high score on an arithmetic test, that is, is a fair indication of the presence of high intelligence. It is equally true that a high score on an ethical discrimination test is an indication of high intelligence. A low score, on the other hand, is not necessarily an indication of low intelligence, but may be merely the result of a limited experience in the handling of ethical situations.

What has just been said of the power of discrimination is equally true of any other typical mental process, such as the power of retention and recall of appropriate experience, of the organization and generalization of experience and the application of generalizations to the understanding of new experiences and the solution of new problems, the foresight of the consequences of behavior, the control of an adequate vocabulary, the recognition of what is at stake in any situation.

In planning a set of moral knowledge tests, therefore, it was necessary to keep in mind these two preliminary standards: First, the tests must cover as wide a range of moral experience as possible; second, the tests must require the exercise of as many appropriate mental processes as possible.

Sources of the Material

In order to facilitate the application of these standards, we found it convenient to make a preliminary classification of the kinds of experience that ought theoretically to be included in a complete set of moral knowledge tests. Had there been time, we should have made this classification on the basis of an extended study of the actual behavior of children of all ages and types in all sorts of actual situations. Such a study of children's moral behavior is very much needed. In lieu of such a study, we did the best we could with the knowledge of life and of children we happened to possess. The following constituted our work sheet:

Brief Outline of Certain Mental Contents and Skills Involved in Ethical Behavior

- A. Certain tools needed for the intelligent consideration of problems of social adjustment.
 1. Adequate social-ethical vocabulary.

2. Adequate control of language—the ability to say the right thing and to understand the more subtle nuances of delicate social adjustment.
3. Assimilation of the fundamental ideas or generalizations in terms of which life is coming increasingly to be understood, such as
 - The idea of Sex
 - The idea of God
 - The idea of Right and Wrong
 - The idea of Natural Law
 - The idea of Growth
 - The idea of Evolution
 - The idea of Cooperation
 - The idea of Personality
 - The idea of Custom
 - The idea of Design
 - The idea of Legislation
 - The idea of Education
 - The idea of Work
 - The idea of Fun
 - The idea of The Machine
 - The idea of Self-forgetting Service

B. Particular knowledges and skills needed for making social adjustments.

1. Knowledge of natural law, physical and biological, and the limitations and possibilities of experience.
2. Knowledge of body and mind in general and of oneself in particular: to understand the causes and consequences of certain kinds of behavior in oneself and others, the nature of temptation, reasons for social and legal requirements and desiderata; to control self and growth.
3. Knowledge of race experience in solving problems of social adjustment, as recorded in history, folk lore, fiction, biography, poetry. Particularly, knowledge of motives and purposes and their consequences.
4. Knowledge of how people behave toward one another in all sorts of situations: home, school, church, public meetings, committee meetings, discussion groups, play groups, emergencies, studying, visiting, etc., and the significance of this behavior for the life of the groups concerned.
5. Knowledge of moral principles held by different groups, and their implications and applications in concrete situations.
6. Knowledge of constitutional rights and obligations, legislative enactments and sanctions affecting oneself and one's groups.
7. Knowledge of institutions and other cooperative bodies and movements affecting oneself or needed as instruments of social adjustment, such as the church, the school, the home, the state, the town or city or community or block or neighborhood and its government, community agencies of welfare and safety, such as the police department, fire department, health department, national associations such as the Child Labor Committee and Red Cross, the movie, the playground, the library, the museum, local industries, the jail, the hospital, the court, the clinic.
What they do, their history, their value, their address, how to cooperate.
8. Knowledge of how the work of the world is carried on in mining, agriculture, industry, commerce, finance, transportation, communication, the trades and professions; mechanical and social aspects.
9. Knowledge of contemporary peoples, races, nations, their contacts, conflicting interests, efforts toward peaceful settlement of disputes and world organization, effects of war and armament, historical and current utopias.
10. Knowledge of the trend of evolution, theories of the universe and the place of man in the universe.
11. Knowledge of how men have experienced God in connection with nature and in the control and development of self and society. Prayer and reflection, retrospect, valuation, foresight, repentance, forgiveness, aspiration, unification.
12. Knowledge of causes and consequences of social behavior, the habit of foresight and valuation, the recognition of personal and social responsibility, the habit of moral thoughtfulness.

13. Knowledge of how to think with the materials of social action, the habit of inhibition, abstraction from prejudice, gathering and weighing of evidence, use of past experience, willingness to experiment, discipline of group thinking, openminded consideration of differences, respect for self and others, freedom from social suggestion, social perception and imagination.
14. Knowledge of the sources of information needed, and the habit of making constant reference to them.

With such a framework in mind the tests described below were constructed. No attempt was made to match a test against any particular one of the above classes of material. Each test contains a variety of situations. But the second standard, that requiring the use of as many kinds of mental processes as possible, was applied chiefly in the *form* of the tests. It was hoped that in the responses requested in the directions for the different tests there would be found a fair sampling of the fundamental types of process.

The Tests as Given and Scored Experimentally

Of the tests devised, thirteen were given in sufficient numbers to warrant statistical treatment. Each of these will be described briefly and what each is supposed to measure or symptomatize will be pointed out. To avoid duplication of material, the problem of criterion and method of scoring will be discussed at the same time.

In the case of arithmetic tests the criterion as to what is the right answer is established by universal practice. Spelling tests have a less universal agreement back of them, but at least there are dictionaries. When it comes to handwriting and composition the criterion has to be established experimentally by ascertaining the judgment of experts and forming a scale for the evaluation of samples of handwriting or composition produced by the subject. In the case of ethical experience we are in a still different field, in which custom and opinion are mixed together to form a great variety of practice and judgment, with no universal agreement as to what constitutes the right or wrong answer. Indeed it would be difficult to select a group of "experts" to decide by discussion and vote what the "right" answer of a question in ethics or the "right" solution of moral problem is. Even with such a board of judges, there is strong probability that on many debatable issues there would be only a majority or perhaps 75 per cent agreement.

The idea of a "perfect" score on moral knowledge tests, therefore, will probably have to be replaced by the notion of a scale of moral values for each individual. Certain likenesses among these scales, once they were discovered, would doubtless appear, so that they could be classified and named without any derogatory implications such as is implied in the notion of a "low" score. A method of scoring that will reveal the individual's trend of thinking is therefore of more significance than one which will show merely his position on a necessarily arbitrary scale determined by a group of judges.

Such a qualitative, descriptive, objective scale waits upon the administration of a large number of tests of the sort to be discussed below. Meanwhile they must be scored to be handled in large enough quantities for the discovery of such scales as may prove reliable and valid. It was necessary, therefore, to resort to the notion of a standard answer for each question in comparison with which the particular answer given by the subject could be automatically judged right or wrong, or partly right and partly wrong. These

standards will be taken up in connection with the description of each test.

A. Word Tests

1. Opposites—a multiple choice test of the sort frequently used in intelligence or achievement tests, with the words chosen from the field of social relations. The following is a sample:

In the bracket at the right of each line place the number of the word which is most nearly opposite in meaning to the word printed in capitals at the left.

1. GIVE. 1—present, 2—accept, 3—take, 4—wish, 5—absent.....(.....) 1
2. FRIEND. 1—soldier, 2—true, 3—false, 4—enemy, 5—fight.....(.....) 2
3. HELP. 1—hinder, 2—assist, 3—someone, 4—need, 5—chantey....(.....) 3
4. BORROW. 1—steal, 2—return, 3—book, 4—loan, 5—debt.....(.....) 4
5. KIND. 1—sweet, 2—cruel, 3—sort, 4—sympathy, 5—always.....(.....) 5

It was expected that this test would give some notion of a child's social ethical vocabulary as well as his handling of ethical concepts. A better vocabulary test was later devised.

There was no peculiar problem of criterion here, as it was easy to secure agreement on the meaning of the words.

2. Similarities—a cross-out test, of which the following is a sample:

In each line below, four of the five words belong in a class or mean about the same thing. One of the five belongs in a different class. Find this odd word in each line and cross it out.

1. 1—debase, 2—ignore, 3—humble, 4—disgrace, 5—lower.
2. 1—quit, 2—surrender, 3—enemy, 4—relinquish, 5—forsake.
3. 1—abhor, 2—detest, 3—loathe, 4—despise, 5—reduce.
4. 1—abjure, 2—insult, 3—revile, 4—disparage, 5—curse.
5. 1—love, 2—revere, 3—like, 4—adore, 5—fond.

Not only is the mental process of recognizing such likenesses and differences not usually found under a mental age of twelve, but the words and relations selected for the test proved difficult even for children over twelve. As this test was well represented in the vocabulary test later devised, it was also dropped. As the criterion involved only word knowledge, it offered no particular difficulty.

3. Word Consequences—also a multiple choice test.

The directions required that the subject indicate (1) all likely consequences that might follow from the action represented by the word in capitals; (2) the most likely consequence; (3) the best consequence; and (4) the worst consequence. The following are sample test words with their multiple choice responses from which the subject is to make the selections just described:

1. CHEATING. 1—courage, 2—forgery, 3—outcast, 4—wealth, 5—poverty
2. BETTING. 1—gambling, 2—poverty, 3—optimism, 4—wealth, 5—war
3. FIGHTING. 1—weakness, 2—love, 3—injury, 4—honor, 5—death
4. COURAGE. 1—disgrace, 2—honor, 3—humility, 4—strength, 5—foolhardiness
5. LOYALTY. 1—bigotry, 2—treason, 3—friendship, 4—trust, 5—timidity

This is a word test which is intended to do more than test vocabulary. It is an association test in which the required associations are those based on experiences of *value*. It is an abbreviated evaluation test. The individual must first pick out probable consequences flowing from a form of behavior or an attitude, and then distinguish the best from the worst of these consequences. Something of his conception of the "best" is thus revealed.

The only criterion used in scoring this test was agreement between the two investigators. The criterion involved not only judgment as to the use

of words, but also as to the consequential relationship of certain experiences. For this reason it was expected that the combined judgments of a group of mature and thoughtful people would be secured in regard to each response before the revised test was scored.

B. Sentence Tests

4. Cause and Effect—a true-false test with 100 items such as the following:

Some of the statements made below are true and some are false. Read each statement carefully and underline the word TRUE if it seems to you to be true. Underline the word FALSE if it seems to you to be false.

- | | | |
|---|------|-------|
| 1. Good marks are chiefly a matter of luck..... | True | False |
| 2. Ministers' sons and deacons' daughters usually go wrong..... | True | False |
| 3. If one eats stolen apples he will have a stomach ache..... | True | False |
| 4. Success always comes from hard work..... | True | False |
| 5. From the standpoint of the individual workers the wage system
is a form of slavery..... | True | False |
| 6. God punishes bad people by making them sick..... | True | False |
| 7. Eavesdroppers never hear anything good about themselves..... | True | False |
| 8. The youngster who can cheat and not get caught at it shows more
good sense than one who does not cheat..... | True | False |

This test is open to the objections that need to be raised about any true-false form of testing. We were aware of these limitations but found the procedure useful, particularly when the test, as here, was only one of a battery of tests and the gross score only was used in measuring the individual.

The intention of this test is the reverse of that of the consequences test outlined above and the foresights test described below. The attempt is made here to get at the individual's ability to trace consequences back to their causes. It is felt that such ability is an important factor in locating one's own and others' moral responsibility for what happens, that is, in placing oneself and others in a true causal sequence with events that superficially may appear quite removed. Ability to place oneself in such a determinative sequence of events is one aspect of self-conscious activity that needs to be understood and measured.

In working out a criterion for this test as in the case of several others we were fortunate in having available a class of sixty graduate students in education who were taking a course called the Psychology of Character Study. It was the sort of group of which one might expect not only conscientious work but also mature and liberal ethical judgment.

This group took the Cause and Effect test, and furnished us with a criterion of a 75% (or better) agreement on seventy-seven of the hundred items. The remaining twenty-three were reviewed by the investigators and were either dropped or scored with the majority vote of the class, except in a few cases where it seemed to us that either ignorance or conventional opinion prevailed, in which cases the class decision was reversed. For example, 55% of the class thought that success always comes from hard work.

Theoretically, the elements of this test deal only with objective fact, but it is in this sort of material that prejudice and highly conventional opinion often reign. The individual's score, if the criterion is correct, reveals his approximation to knowledge as against ignorance, prejudice or convention. Of course, the fact that more than 75% of these graduate students say that it is not true that unemployment is the fault of the laborer does not make this statement untrue. But it does lend backing to what would otherwise be the unsupported personal judgment of the investigators. This standard is

imperfect, very, but it is probably as objective as that which determines the bulk of the present day-school curriculum.

5. Duties—a modified true-false test with three point response.

A hundred items of the following nature were used; the subject being asked to indicate whether the act stated is his duty, is not his duty, or is sometimes his duty and sometimes not:

- | | | | |
|--|-----|---|----|
| 1. To help a slow or dull child with his lessons..... | Yes | ? | No |
| 2. To read the newspapers every day..... | Yes | ? | No |
| 3. To call your teacher's attention to the fact if you received a
higher grade than you deserved..... | Yes | ? | No |
| 4. To keep a diary..... | Yes | ? | No |
| 5. To sneeze when you feel like it..... | Yes | ? | No |
| 6. To jeer at a child who has just been punished..... | Yes | ? | No |
| 7. To smile when things go wrong..... | Yes | ? | No |
| 8. To report another pupil if you see him cheating..... | Yes | ? | No |

This test furnishes a sort of rough index to knowledge of folkways the significance of which to the child is indicated by whether he considers the act his duty or not.

It is very difficult to secure a criterion for a test of this sort. The items do not represent a grown person's activities and it is not particularly practicable for an untrained adult to attempt to answer such questions from the standpoint of a ten-year-old. The graduate class referred to showed far less agreement than on the Cause and Effect test. It may prove wise later to use as a standard the majority or 75% agreement of the pupils of a given age who have on the other tests a score approximating mature ethical judgment.

With some exceptions, illustrations of which are given below, the judgments of the class were utilized as follows: Two answers were allowed for each item, the one which followed the predominant vote of the class having a value of two, and the other, following the next most frequent reply, having a value of one. On each item, therefore, a child would score two, one or zero.

The class judgments were reversed by the investigators in the case of some twenty items, such as the following, in which the class percentages are given on the first line, and the final score value, as set by us, on the second:

	Yes	S	No
To pray at least once a day.....	64 0	19 1	17 2
To go to Sunday school every Sunday.....	48 0	40 1	12 2
To take a temperance pledge.....	81 0	17 0	2 2
To sell tickets to your school entertainments.....	56 1	37 2	6 0
To correct another pupil when you hear him using bad grammar..	27 0	65 2	8 2
To keep every secret that you promise to keep.....	87 1	23 2	0 0
To keep quiet when older persons are talking.....	68 1	30 2	2 0

6. Comprehensions—A multiple choice test suggested by the Binet comprehensions which employs similar situations. The Terman revision of the Binet distinguishes among such questions three orders of difficulty instead of lumping them together as Binet did and as we were compelled to do in our preliminary testing. The directions in this test called for the "what you would do or say" response first. Then after the test had been taken the

pupils were asked to go back and indicate what would be the *best* thing to do or say. As the children almost invariably checked the same items, the second request was later dropped. It might have been better to ask some such question as: "What would you advise a boy or girl of your own age to do?" or "Which act would be most likely to promote your own welfare in the long run?" or "Which act would be most fair, just and friendly for everyone concerned?"

The following are samples of the situations and responses:

1. If someone asks to borrow your pencil:
 - (a) Tell him it's broken.
 - (b) Tell him that you just lost it.
 - (c) Tell him that you don't want to loan it.
 - (d) Let him take it.
2. If someone steals your lunch:
 - (a) Steal another lunch to even it up.
 - (b) Report it to the teacher.
 - (c) Cry about it.
 - (d) Say nothing about it.
3. If you see a classmate cheating on an examination:
 - (a) Say nothing to anyone.
 - (b) Explain to him that it is wrong and warn him.
 - (c) Report it to the teacher.
 - (d) Say nothing, but try to cheat yourself.

This test is similar to the Duties test in its intent, but with a different technique. Counting the multiple responses there were 132 possible ways of responding, each one a distinct item, and not merely the opposite of another, as in the case of Duties. The presumption back of these two tests is not that one may not do the correct thing without knowing he ought to, nor that he will do it when he knows he ought to, but that knowledge of what is expected or of what is wisest is in the field of morals, just as in plumbing or cooking, an essential part of intelligent control of a situation, even when one chooses to do precisely what is not expected or what is not wise. Our moral issues lie largely in this field of conflict, on the one hand, between what we transiently wish and what we know is good, and, on the other, between what is generally regarded as good and what we ideally vision as better. In any case, the tester must know the individual's equipment of standards before he can understand the moral significance of his behavior.

Seventy-five per cent of the class agreed in twenty-three out of the thirty items. In twenty-two of these cases their judgment was followed. In one case it was reversed. In five of the remaining cases, majority opinion was followed. One of the others was dropped and one was reversed. Of the two reversals one was subsequently omitted.

7. Provocations—A few illustrations will introduce the test:

Here are some little stories of what some children did. You are to decide whether they did right or wrong. If what they did was not quite right, perhaps it was at least excusable in view of the circumstances. Look at the sample first.

SAMPLE: Jane's family were too poor to buy fruit for her sick brother. So every now and then Jane took an apple or an orange from a fruit stand and brought it home to him.

Now if you think she was absolutely wrong in taking the fruit,
 put a circle around the Wr, like this.....R....Ex....**Wr**
 But if she did exactly right, encircle the R, like this.....**R**....Ex....Wr.
 If you think she was wrong but excusable in view of her
 desire to bring it to her sick brother, encircle the Ex like
 thisR....**Ex**....Wr

Begin here and do the rest in the same way:

1. Helen noticed that nearly everyone in the class was cheating
 on a test, so she cheated too.....R....Ex....Wr

2. Harry was a Christian boy. One day a Jewish boy called Harry a "dirty Christian." Harry knocked him down.....R....Ex....Wr
3. Charles did not want to play marbles for keeps but the boys called him a "sissy" so he went ahead and played for keeps anywayR....Ex....Wr
4. On the way to Sunday school Jack matched pennies with the other boys in order to get some money for the Sunday-school collectionR....Ex....Wr

The test is called "Provocations" because the situations named are provocative of responses that are in conflict with ideal modes of response. In the case of ethically immature persons the situations stimulate wishes, prejudices, emotions, and so forth, which lead to the sort of action stated in the little story. Sometimes convention supports the stated action and sometimes it does not. In the following case convention and wish seem to agree in contradistinction to more ideal conceptions of the appropriate response:

Henry saw a big bully strike a little boy, so Henry walked up and gave the bully a real hard blow and knocked him down.

Judgment is passed on the particular responses listed in the test, and thus the examiner gains an insight into the level of moral judgment attained by the subject.

As can be imagined, a standard for such a test as this is almost impossible of achievement. It was first decided to take a conventional standard as the criterion. Two suggested themselves, the one a rather mature one as found in the answers given by the graduate class, the other, the less socialized standard found by examining the actual answers given by all the children who took the test. So many of the conventional replies, however, offended our own sense of right and wrong that it was finally decided to attempt an approximation to a standard that would conform to the great historical moral ideals, and to measure all divergences from this viewpoint rather than from some point further down the scale. The conventional standard is thus identified by a score rather than by a qualitative exposition, and so also is the standard of the major group to which the child belongs. The median of his group may be lower or higher than the conventional standard and his own score may deviate from the median of his group toward the conventional, or toward the ideal, or toward a vague and undetermined zero of moral knowledge.

The decisions of the graduate class turned out to be so highly conventional that they were practically ignored as a criterion. They were too much like what sixth grade children give as their responses. For example, in the last illustration given, of the boy who knocked down the bully, 45% of the class thought it was unqualifiedly right to knock the bully down, 42% thought it wrong but excusable, and only 13% called it unqualifiedly wrong. In one sixth grade previously given this test 85% marked it right, 6% excusable and 9% wrong. Our own standard gives a value of one to excusable and of two to wrong.

Or take the following illustration:

The neighbors had been kept awake at night by two cats fighting. So Fred set his bulldog on them.

The following percentages of the graduate class and the sixth grade were given to the different answers:

	R	Ex	Wr
Graduate Class	19%	53%	28%
Sixth Grade	29%	45%	26%
Our valuation	0	1	2

Instances like this made us feel that if the test was to have real differentiating value, the only possible standard to be used was one which would grade all from the top down, on which the score would represent approximation toward consistency in forming judgments in the light of ethical ideals rather than in terms of convention or prejudice.

8. Foresights—One important distinction between this and the Word Consequences test is in the fact that here no suggestions are given as to the possible consequences. The subject is left entirely to himself in thinking of what might happen from the events recorded. He is requested to write down as many things as he can think of, both good things and bad, and a sample is given as an illustration. Here are some of the incidents selected from the forty-eight actually used:

1. Whenever anyone picked on John he would go tell his teacher.
(Space is given for a large number of possible consequences.)
2. John accidentally broke a street lamp with a snow ball.
3. Ruth's folks had a crowded apartment so they kept a lot of boxes and things on the fire escape.
4. Jim was anxious to make good marks at school so he usually studied instead of going out to play with the other fellows.

The foresight of consequences involves the ability to see for oneself what is likely to happen. Foresight is, of course, a conspicuous factor in intelligence. But foresight in any particular field is a function of experience as well as of intelligence. The foresight of social consequences is one of the chief characteristics of the good man, and even the relatively unintelligent can learn from experience to see ahead to the effect of their own and others' deeds with sufficient clearness to act kindly if not altogether wisely.

The forty-eight items of this test were put into six separate forms. The eight items of each form consisted of two sets of four each, with each set covering about the same range of situation and allowing for about the same range of possible consequences.

The method of scoring this test has not yet been worked out.

9. Recognitions—A multiple choice test. The following is a sample:

After each statement are five letters: C. L. S. X. J. If the deed is a case of Cheating, draw a circle around the C; if it is Lying, around the L; if it is Stealing, around the S. If it is something wrong, but not either cheating, lying, or stealing, put a circle around the X. If it is not wrong at all, put a circle around the J. If the thing is both cheating and lying or stealing and lying, or all three, encircle all the letters you need to in order to express your opinion. (A sample is given which is here omitted.)

- | | |
|---|----------------|
| 1. Bullying younger children | C. L. S. X. J. |
| 2. Using street car transfers that are out of date..... | C. L. S. X. J. |
| 3. Riding on the back of a truck without the driver's knowing it.. | C. L. S. X. J. |
| 4. Apologizing for a misdeed when you are not really sorry..... | C. L. S. X. J. |
| 5. Forgetting to brush your teeth for a day..... | C. L. S. X. J. |
| 6. Talking loudly in the hallways when classes are in session.... | C. L. S. X. J. |
| 7. Picking flowers in a public park..... | C. L. S. X. J. |
| 8. When you don't want to go somewhere, making up an excuse so
as not to hurt anyone's feelings..... | C. L. S. X. J. |

Intelligent control of behavior involves correct classification of situations and responses. If adjustment is to occur, new situations must be assimilated in part at least to familiar ones which are already connected with the most useful or appropriate responses. Stock speculation is not called stealing by those who deal in it, nor is keeping a package mailed one by mistake. One is just "business;" the other is "a piece of good fortune." A child has to learn how each of a thousand forms of behavior is named, or he cannot

be expected to make satisfactory adjustments. He *may not* act differently for knowing the way his acts are named, of course, but he *can not* be subject to intelligent social control or social motives unless he can name his own acts. The Recognitions test aims to discover how far this naming process has gone.

As first given, the Recognitions were in four forms, each containing twenty-five elements, five being cases of stealing, five of lying, five of cheating, five wrong but neither of these three, and five jokers, or things neither right nor wrong. There was of course some overlapping, making double values necessary in scoring.

We found that in many instances the snap judgment of the graduate class failed to show adequate analysis of the situations into their socially significant aspects. Here again it would be advisable to get together a group of experienced people who would if necessary take the time to discuss their disagreements and arrive at as many common judgments as possible.

The method of scoring this test is shown below:

Copying a composition out of a book but changing some of the words.

	C.	L.	S.	X.	J.
Percent of class giving this only one name.....	72	2			
Percent of class giving it more than one name.....	24	15	20		
Our score values.....	2		1		

Thus, 72% of the class marked this solely as cheating. Two per cent marked it solely as lying, 24% marked it cheating and also something else, 15% marked it lying and also something else, 20% marked it stealing and also something else. So we gave cheating a value of two and stealing a value of one. A person marking it either C or C and S got a score of two. One marking it only S got a score of one. Any other mark was zero. In most cases only one response was permissible. In a few cases both responses were valued two.

10. Principles—a true-false test, containing twenty-seven items. Samples:

- | | | |
|--|------|-------|
| 1. To master oneself is a greater thing than to win a battle..... | True | False |
| 2. Clean speech is a sign of being a "goody-goody"..... | True | False |
| 3. Obedience is of greater importance than honor..... | True | False |
| 4. No one should be forgiven a wrong deed until he has asked for forgiveness | True | False |
| 5. If anyone hurts you it is up to you to hurt him..... | True | False |

Self-criticism involves knowledge of principles. It is fairly easy to cover the whole range of moral behavior in a few principles—even in one or two if they are general enough. It is difficult, however, to discover when a principle is "known." It may be recognized verbally or in general outline and yet be left entirely unconnected with any mental or physical action. Yet it cannot be grasped in communicable form without words. Hence we felt it to be necessary to test the verbal mastery of great moral principles. Although the true-false technique does not make an adequate analysis of the subject's knowledge possible, it probably does place him properly in his group.

There proved to be very little disagreement among mature judges as to how to mark these elements. Three were not scored on account of ambiguities revealed by the way they were marked by the graduate class.

11. Applications—a multiple choice test, utilizing the elements already found in the Principles test and the Provocations test.

"Knowing" a principle involves being able to unearth it and apply it to

a given situation to which it affords the key, and also the ability to see in advance the concrete situations to which it is likely to apply. This test attempts to find out something about the former of these abilities. The situation is presented involving a dilemma. Then five principles are given from which the subject is to select the two which might affect his judgment as to the rightness or wrongness of the alternative ways of meeting the situation that is offered for consideration. The principles are so chosen that one suggests one alternative as the right one, and a second the other. The person whose mind is already made up as to the correct response is less likely to find both the principles which apply than is the open-minded person who is willing to consider various solutions before settling on one as final.

After selecting his principles, the subject then returns to the alternatives and indicates which he regards as the right one. This answer may be compared with the one he gave in the Provocations test where he had no opportunity to weigh the principles.

The following are some samples of the situations offered in the test:

1. Mary saw Helen cheating on an examination. She had to decide whether she would

- ☐ (a) Report it to the teacher.
- ☐ (b) Not report it to the teacher.

Here are five rules, of which two apply to this problem. Check two and only two in the spaces at the left of the numbers.

- ☐ (1) Treat others as you would like them to treat you.
- ☐ (2) Be true to what is for the good of all, even when your own interests or those of your friends are involved.
- ☐ (3) When you have wronged someone, ask to be forgiven.
- ☐ (4) Be cheerful and uncomplaining when disappointed or hurt or in trouble.
- ☐ (5) Do not think of yourself as more important than you are.

After checking the two rules that apply to Mary, put a check before either (a) or (b), according as you think it would have been right for her to tell or not to tell.

2. When John started home from school he found that someone had taken his rubbers, and so he thought that as it was raining he might take another pair he saw, which just fitted him. He had to decide whether he would

- ☐ (a) Take the rubbers.
- ☐ (b) Not take the rubbers.

- ☐ (1) Return good for evil.
- ☐ (2) Love your enemies and be kind to them.
- ☐ (3) Obey the laws of health.
- ☐ (4) Treat others as you would like them to treat you.
- ☐ (5) Keep your word of honor sacred.

The Applications test was not taken by the graduate class, but was standardized by the investigators only. In scoring the (a) and (b) alternatives the same method was used as in the case of the provocations, *viz.*, reference to what the investigators felt to be the response called for on the part of a morally mature person.

11. Social-ethical Vocabulary—a word knowledge test in the form used by the Thorndike tests of word knowledge.

We early felt the need of a vocabulary test which would measure the individual's ability to express himself concerning social relations. We had previously used a general word knowledge test as one of a battery for measuring intelligence. This did not purport, however, to measure the vocabulary of any special field of experience. While it cannot be assumed in advance that knowledge of the vocabulary of a special field is highly correlated with either the mental or physical skills connected with that field, there is nevertheless sufficient likelihood that there is some close relation to justify effort to get at the facts. Certainly without suitable words one

cannot communicate with others about anything as complex as ethical relations.

Further, there is a large element of word knowledge involved in the above moral knowledge tests. Scores on these tests might conceivably be a matter of vocabulary, or vocabulary and moral knowledge might prove to be so closely related as to make it possible to substitute a vocabulary test for all the others.

Our first efforts were not elaborately planned and included only the short Opposites and Similarities tests above described. The work involved in building a satisfactory tool for measuring vocabulary was too great for us to undertake in addition to the other testing that had to be done. Fortunately a graduate student* at Teachers College was in a position to engage in this piece of research under our direction. She secured the material for the test from Thorndike's Word Book, his Word Knowledge Tests, from our moral knowledge tests and similar sources, compiling a carefully selected total of a thousand words, from which, after testing about a thousand children, she constructed two equivalent tests of 150 words each. These were used in our testing program.

No special problem of criterion was involved here at this stage of the work.

A few of the words and their arrangement in the test are added here for illustrative purposes: The directions require that the number of the word that means the same or most nearly the same as the first word in the line shall be entered in the space at the right.

1. BRAVERY. 1—folly, 2—courage, 3—livery, 4—impertinence, 5—humanity1
2. SCOFF. 1—cold, 2—angry, 3—make fun of, 4—extol, 5—expound..2
3. MALICE. 1—spite, 2—poison, 3—glass, 4—character, 5—hammer..3
4. SLUGGARD. 1—snail, 2—lazy person, 3—lax, 4—shot, 5—regard..4
5. REPROACH. 1—come near, 2—insect, 3—scold, 4—steal game, 5—nerve5
6. JUDICIOUS. 1—punch, 2—spoken, 3—jury, 4—wise, 5—learned..6
7. SUMPTUOUS. 1—conceited, 2—expensive, 3—repast, 4—meager, 5—fairy-like7
8. INTROPECTIVE. 1—look over, 2—inspection, 3—self-examining, 4—inward, 5—sight8

C. The Good Manners Test

Another need that we felt quite early in our work was for some measure of home culture. We did not have the time or the money for careful case studies, and were obliged to rely on what we could find out from pupils and teachers. It occurred to us that manners might afford a key to refinement of a sort that would be symptomatic of careful family training. Here again we had the co-operation of a graduate student.† The test we used was very largely her product. A sample of the test follows:

- The statements below are true or false. If true, draw a line under the word **True** in front of the statement. If false, draw a line under the word **False**.
 (True False) If soup or any liquid is too hot, blow on it slightly to cool it.
 (True False) In helping yourself to sugar always use your own spoon.
 (True False) It is in good form to show general courtesies of "Please" and "Thank you" to waitresses and maids.
 (True False) It is more important to be neat at school than at home.

*Miss Gladys Schwesinger. Her study has been published under the title, *The Social-Ethical Significance of Vocabulary*, 1926, Teachers College, Columbia University.

†Miss Cora Orr. The problem is now being studied more extensively by another student. See also a quite different technique by V. M. Sims, *The Measurement of Socio-Economic Status*, and his *Score Card*, Public School Publishing Co.

- (True False) If a boy meets his mother or sister on the street, he is not expected to tip his hat.
- (True False) A boy should not detain a girl to talk on the sidewalk.
- (True False) When yawning, make no attempt to suppress it by covering the mouth.

In the following, put a cross before the answer which you consider the best.
When not in use the teaspoon should be

1. Left in the teacup.
2. Placed on the table.
3. Placed on the saucer.

Approval of a program may be shown by

1. Stamping feet.
2. Clapping.
3. Whistling.

Answer the following questions. If the answer is "Yes" underline the word Yes. If "No" underline the word No.

- Should a man tip his hat to a strange lady when picking up an article which she has dropped?.....Yes No
- If the door is closed is it necessary to knock before entering a friend's room?Yes No
- Is it considered ill mannered to turn and look at a person who has passed in the street?.....Yes No
- Jane introduces her room mates to her mother as follows: "Mother, may I introduce Miss Brown and Miss Thompson?" Is this correct?....Yes No

This test was standardized by reference to the judgments of mature, cultured persons.

SECOND ARTICLE

ADMINISTRATION OF THE TESTS AND PRELIMINARY STATISTICAL RESULTS

The reader is asked to remember that we are describing the process of building a set of moral knowledge tests. The first step in this process was outlined in the preceding article. This consisted in determining the field of knowledge to be covered by the proposed tests and in reducing to test form as much of this material as possible.

In this part of the work we had the advantage of two decades of school testing and its experimentation with various testing techniques, so that there were ready to hand many suggestions for the most useful arrangement of material.

In addition, we have had at our disposal the rapidly developing theory of measurements so far as this theory is applicable to the field of character testing. Our successive steps, therefore, are by no means arbitrary or gratuitous, but are based on established principles and correspond closely to the procedure through which all standardized tests must pass before they become usable instruments of measurement.

One of the first principles of test making is that the preliminary experimental forms shall contain considerably more material than is likely to be needed in the final form of the test. There are three reasons for this. First, it has been found by experience that many test items turn out to be too easy, or too hard, or ambiguous, and have to be discarded. Second, there must be enough items so that each test can be split into two equivalent halves and the scores on the two halves correlated as a measure of the reliability of the material. Third, when enough items are used, the test can subsequently be divided into two or more equivalent forms.

As one of the preliminary tests had four forms and another had six, we were faced with the necessity of administering twenty-one different tests, all of which were far too long for final practicability. In fact, to have taken them all would have occupied more than ten hours of a child's time.

A second principle is that the preliminary testing must be done with the same population groups with which the test will be used when finished. These tests were therefore given to a wide range of social levels in grades five to eight, inclusive. Only city children were included, however.

In addition to knowing the reliability of each test, that is, the likelihood that it will always work in the same way, when one is building a battery of tests to be given all at once, all of which purport to measure aspects of the same general trait, it is necessary to know the intercorrelation of the tests with one another, and the correlation of each with the total of all the rest. If the correlation of a test with any other test is too high, that is, if they measure just the same thing, one of the two may as well be dropped. The correlation of each with the total score made on all the other tests needs to be high, as this is a measure of the effectiveness of each test in measuring what the whole battery measures.

To secure the correlation of any test with any other it is obvious that the two tests must be taken by the same children. We have already seen that for each child to take all the tests would have required over ten hours. Consequently, the tests had to be divided up among different children, while still being distributed over a wide range of population of grades five to eight.

We actually used sixty-eight groups of children for an average of two and a half hours each. Day schools were used for this purpose, as it would have been quite out of the question to do such extensive testing in Sunday schools and clubs.

These sixty-eight groups were distributed as follows: 22 in a New York suburb which contained a wide range of socio-economic level; 19 in a New York City public school unusually cosmopolitan in its population; 17 in a mid-western city of some 200,000 population; 10 groups in three private schools for boys. Some of the latter boys were in grades nine, ten and eleven. The classes varied in size from fourteen (one group) to sixty-five (one group), with an average of about thirty-five.

In all this the schools concerned gave us the most cordial and helpful co-operation, without which it would have been impossible to get as much accomplished as we did.

In Table I is given the number of pupils of each grade who took each of the tests described in the previous article. The classes called "Opportunity 1" and "Opportunity 2" are respectively a special group of dull children of grades five and six, and a special group of exceptionally bright children of grade six.

TABLE I
DISTRIBUTION OF TESTS BY GRADES

Tests	Total	Grades					Opp. 1	Opp. 2
		5	6	7	8	9-11		
1. Opposites	273	123	150
2. Similarities	337	144	193
3. Word Consequences..	381	188	162	31
4. Cause and Effect....	760	320	226	76	150	78
5. Duties	751	268	246	163	53	...	21	...
6. Comprehensions	690	114	65	284	227
7. Provocations	657	63	175	168	108	67	21	55
8. Foresight A.....	268	120	45	38	65
Foresight B.....	251	125	75	...	51
Foresight C.....	266	88	56	122
Foresight D.....	234	86	112	...	36
Foresight E.....	290	43	48	73	126
Foresight F.....	304	...	82	56	111	55
9. Recognitions A.....	719	263	144	75	201	36
Recognitions B.....	719	230	182	134	137	36
Recognitions C.....	697	260	132	61	208	26
Recognitions D.....	674	261	121	114	142	36
10. Principles	515	130	151	104	109	...	21	...
11. Applications	468	137	96	34	146	55
12. Vocabulary	1599	392	322	331	354	200
13. Good Manners	235	82	34	43	55	...	21	...

PRINCIPLES TEST

With the exception of the vocabulary test the total number of copies of any one test did not exceed one thousand, but the total number of tests used was 11,410. As some of the tests were four, five and six pages, the total number of pages was 36,372. Expert examiners were used for all the testing.

Scoring the Papers

Inasmuch as we needed not only each child's score on each test, taken as a whole, but also a record of how he answered each question, it was necessary to make a complete transcription of each child's treatment of each item on each test. For this purpose the customary large quadrant sheets were used, one for each group for each test. The test items were numbered across the top and the children's names or numbers were written at the left.

The record for a class would look something like the following, in the case of a true-false test. The + indicates that the word true was underlined and the — indicates that the word false was underlined.

PRINCIPLES TEST																
No. of	School.				Grade.				Teachers. etc.				Examiner.			
Child	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	etc.	R. W. S.
001	—	—	—	+	+	—	+	+	—	—	+	+	+	+		
002	—	—	—	—	+	—	—	—	—	—	+	+	+	+		
003	—	+	—	—	+	+	+	+	+	—	—	+	+	+	+	
004	—	—	—	—	+	+	+	+	—	—	+	+	+	+		

On a strip of paper having the same size squares the correct answers, according to the scoring methods described in the previous article, were indicated as follows:

Principles Key																
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	etc.	
—	—	—	—	+	+	+	+	—	—	+	+	+	+	—		

In the case of the true-false tests the score was taken to be the total number right minus the total number wrong. So when the key was applied to the child's record as found on the sheet, the number right was counted and entered at the right and the number wrong, likewise. Then the difference was taken and entered as the score.

The other tests were treated in similar fashion, so that there was thus available on large sheets all the basic facts concerning the tests.

Statistical Treatment of Scores

1. General Summary

The elementary facts concerning each test are given in Table II, *viz.*, the mean score, the standard deviation of the scores, the range of scores, the mean chronological age, and the mean mental age, with respect to each of eleven tests. The total number taking each test is given in Table I. The Foresights test is omitted from all the following tables, as it was not scored at the time they were made. The Good Manners test is treated separately later in the article.

TABLE II
GENERAL SUMMARY

	Mean	S. D.	Range	Mean Age (in mos.)	Approx. Mean Mental Age (in mos.)
1. Opposites	28.0	7.5	3-48	161	166
2. Similarities	12.6	3.8	2-30	167	166
3. Word Consequences	83.0	23.5	14-157	166	166
12. Vocabulary	74.0	30.0	6-140	140	163
4. Cause and Effect.....	33.0	15.5	-12 to +70	144	168
5. Duties	134.5	13.0	75-155	140	161
6. Comprehensions	18.5	3.2	4-26	156	167
7. Provocations	43.5	6.8	3-6	150	164
9. Recognitions	130.0	24.0	35-175	150	161
10. Principles	11.0	6.0	-5 to +24	146	163
11. Applications	24.0	5.5	2-36	144	171

As has been noted, no one child took all the tests. Each child took at least two and in some cases four or five. The tests were distributed in such a way as to have each test taken in combination with every other test as far as possible. Some tests, such as Similarities, Opposites, and Word Consequences, were felt to be too difficult for the younger children and were given

to a limited range. The relative equivalence of the groups tested, however, is shown by Table II. The lowest mean age is for the Duties test, and the highest for the Similarities.

2. Intercorrelation Figures

The intercorrelations of the tests among themselves are given in Table III. In the case where the range of ages was restricted, the coefficients have been corrected for such restriction. None of the correlations of Table III have been corrected for attenuation.

TABLE III

INTERCORRELATIONS*

	2	3	12	4	5	6	7	9	10	11
1. Opposites	x	x	.748	.750	x	.362	.197	x	.572	x
2. Similarities		x	.612	x	x	.236	x	.472	x	x
3. Word Consequences665	x	x	.137	x	.440	x	x
12. Vocabulary458	.383	.381	.276	.389	.330	x
4. Causes350	.000	.237	.500	.555	.326
5. Duties228	.331	.600	.575	.030
6. Comprehensions000	.400	.430	.363
7. Provocations172	.248	.443
9. Recognitions276	.258
10. Principles164
11. Applications										

The gaps in the table are noted by the letter x. At these points the test concerned was not matched by any other or the numbers taking both were too small to be considered.

The relatively high correlation of the word tests, numbers 1, 2, 3, and 12, among themselves is clearly seen by this table, and suggests at once the propriety of omitting those that are like the vocabulary test in their intention, *viz.*, the Opposites and Similarities. On the whole, these intercorrelations are satisfactory, being dangerously high in only a few cases. No one test is consistently high in relation to all the others.

3. Reliability Figures

Since the tests were not in any case given to the same children twice, it was necessary to split each test into two parts by taking the odd items for one part and the even items for the other part and score each of these

*The reader unused to statistical terms needs only remember that correlation means likeness. If the coefficient is plus 1.0 between two tests, then the two tests are alike in their capacity to measure whatever is being measured. Or if the same test is used twice, and the correlation between the results is 1.0, then it may be concluded that the measuring device, like a yard stick, does not change from time to time, but always measures the same thing in the same way. On the other hand, if the correlation were .00 or nearly .00, between two tests, as is the case of the correlations between several of the tests of Table III, then the two tests either do not measure the same thing or measure it very poorly. There is no relation between the score on one test and the score on the other. The pupil standing first in one test, might be anywhere at all on the other. And in like manner, if the correlation between two trials of the same test, or two halves of the same test approximates zero, then it must be concluded that the test is like a variable yard stick, and is useless as a measuring device.

A negative correlation, if high, shows that those who tend to stand first on one test, tend to stand last on the other.

Correlations between zero and 1.0 are indications of approximations to identity between the two measuring instruments, or between two groups measured by the same instrument, or between two or more performances of the same test on the same group or in measuring the same thing. Generally speaking a correlation of over .50 is usually called high. A correlation of .90 or better is very high, and .99 means that the two distributions are practically identical.

parts separately. These scores were then correlated, just as though they were the scores of two independent tests. These correlations are given in the first column of Table IV.

TABLE IV

RELIABILITY FIGURES					
	r between two halves of test	Coefficient of reliability	Time (Min.)	No. of Elements	Relative reliability
1. Opposites707	.828	15	65	.96
4. Causes637	.778	25	90	.88
5. Duties713	.832	15	100	.95
6. Comprehensions675	.805	30	30	.90
7. Provocations579	.733	20	36	.90
9. Recognitions664	.798	30	100	.89
10. Principles526	.688	5	24	.92
11. Applications682	.810	30	22	.91
12. Vocabulary960	.980	30	150	.99

The coefficient in Column 1 is not as high, of course, as if the same test had been repeated several times. The figures in Column 2 are predictions of what the self-correlation would be if we had correlated two forms of each half, each of which was as long as the one used.*

This reliability is as high as ordinary intelligence and school achievement testing would give for tests of the same length. The coefficients are high enough so that if the tests were combined in a single battery taking, say, an hour's testing time, they would yield a reliability coefficient of .90 or better.

As the tests used were of widely varying lengths, merely comparing the coefficients of reliability does not show the relative reliability of the type of material used and the testing technique. By predicting what the reliability coefficient would be if the tests were all of the same length, their comparative reliability as procedures can be seen. Column five† shows what the reliability figures would be if each test took one hour. Rearranged in the order of the reliability of the type of material and the technique used, nine tests appear as follows:

Vocabulary99
Opposites96
Duties95
Principles92
Applications91
Comprehensions90
Provocations90
Recognitions89
Causes88

We can conclude without further ado that paper and pencil tests of the sort used here measure consistently whatever they do measure.

4. *Validity Figures*

The question of what they do measure is not so easy to answer. There are no previously validated tests with the results of which the scores on these tests can be compared. We have no outside independent measures or estimates of the moral knowledge of the pupils tested. Indeed, it is difficult to see how such knowledge could be secured without some manner of testing, unless one would wish to regard behavior as a measure of knowledge, which was suggested in the first article as a defensible procedure.

Lacking such a criterion, the next best thing is to regard the sum of

* Computed from Column 1 by the Spearman-Brown formula.

† Computed by the Spearman-Brown formula.

all or a part of these tests as the best existing measure of the moral knowledge of these pupils, and correlate each test against the rest. Four of the tests are word tests. The other seven contain 412 "moral" situations to which the child makes some kind of reaction. Table V gives the correlations of the sentence and vocabulary tests with this criterion.

TABLE V
CORRELATIONS WITH THE CRITERION (TOTAL OF 1-7)

	1	2	3	4	5
	Unweighted	Weighted	Corrected	Predicted	Increase Required
1. Causes440	.402	.521	.882	2.0
2. Duties472	.486	.544	.912	2.0
3. Comprehensions317	.288	.372	.897	2.11
4. Provocations342	.328	.421	.856	2.17
5. Recognitions493	.491	.581	.893	2.37
6. Principles502	.544	.636	.830	2.21
7. Applications358	.412	.418	.900	2.10
8. Vocabulary623
9. Intelligence686

Column 1 of Table V gives the correlations* between the scores on each test and an unweighted sum of the scores on all seven of the sentence tests.

A fairer picture of the relative power of each test to measure whatever the whole battery measures is given in Column 8, which shows the correlation of each test with the sum of the seven when each is weighted by its length.†

These correlations, when corrected for attention, appear as in Column 3, on the assumption that the reliability of the sum of the tests is not over .90. Column 4 gives the maximum possible correlation that could be expected from each test if a true measure of whatever it measures were available. And Column 5 gives the number of times the test would have to be lengthened or the number of times it would have to be given to yield the predicted maximum correlations.

This does not mean, of course, that by using the sum of the scores as a criterion, these high correlations could be procured by merely doubling the tests, for the sum of the scores is probably not a perfect measure of whatever each test attempts to measure. But it is clear that it is not worth while to lengthen some of the tests materially, both because of the high reliability of the tests as they stand and because they would not give any more valid results by being more than doubled.

We are now ready to make the new tests and to combine them into usable batteries on the basis of the facts discovered about the way they work. The question still presses, however, as to whether it is worth while to go to the expense of reconstructing the tests. What assurance is there that when

* These correlations are subject to error in that the score on each test is included in the total with which it is being correlated. Owing to the unsatisfactory character of the criterion, however, it was not felt to be worth while to do the work necessary to avoid this error, which is slight in any case.

The reader is referred to standard texts on measurement for justification of this procedure, and for the correction for attenuation, the assumptions underlying which are met about as well in the case of the data under consideration as in the usual run of similar data.

† More accurately, by its standard deviation; that is, each score is multiplied by the ratio, Total S.D.

Test S.D.

they are reconstructed they will be of much significance? The only way to find out is to compare the results of the use of these tests with other facts known about the pupils tested, such as intelligence, age, conduct, home background, and see whether the moral knowledge tests add anything to what we already know or can find out in more economical ways. These relationships will therefore now occupy our attention.

*Relations Between Moral Knowledge and Intelligence, Age, Vocabulary,
Home Background and Conduct*

1. *Moral Knowledge and Intelligence*

Table VI shows the relation between each test and the intelligence of those taking it.

TABLE VI
RELATION OF INTELLIGENCE TO C. E. I. TESTS

	r	Median Int. Score*	No. of Samples
1. Opposites775	104	269
2. Similarities664	104	317
3. Word Consequences519	110	346
4. Cause and Effect647	104	672
5. Duties402	95	567
6. Comprehensions371	114	363
7. Provocations145	106	258
9. Recognitions498	105	522
10. Principles444	103	258
11. Applications562	114	278
12. Vocabulary882	106	234

These correlations are relatively high, particularly in the case of the Vocabulary test and the two other word tests. Is it to be concluded that these tests are measuring intelligence rather than moral knowledge?

Considering only the tests in Table V, it is to be noted, first, that the correlations with intelligence are paralleled somewhat by the correlations with the criterion of the seven combined. These parallel correlations are as follows:

TABLE VII
INTELLIGENCE AND MORAL KNOWLEDGE

	r with sum of 1 to 7	r with intelligence	†Partial r with sum intell. constant.
1. Cause and Effect402	.647	.000
2. Duties486	.402	.296
3. Comprehensions288	.371	.090
4. Provocations328	.145	.338
5. Recognitions491	.498	.240
6. Principles544	.444	.304
7. Applications412	.562	.003
8. Vocabulary626	.882	.000
Sum of 1-7686	...

* Obtained by other tests on these pupils administered by the Inquiry and involving highly standardized intelligence test material developed by the Institute of Educational Research. The score is a point score.

†The reader is referred to standard texts for the interpretation of the partial correlation technique. Roughly, the interpretation of Table VII is this: The children tested were of many degrees of intelligence. They also made many different scores on the moral knowledge tests. Column two shows how closely their position on the intelligence test corresponded with their position on the moral knowledge tests. Now if they had all been of the same intelligence, then the relation between their position on each test as compared with the sum of their scores on all the tests combined would be as shown in Column three.

In the second place, the correlation between the sum of the first seven and intelligence is .686. This is almost as large as the correlation between many intelligence tests. Apparently intelligence is a large factor in making a score on one of these tests.

Whether it is the only factor we could say with more certainty if there were some adequate outside measure of moral knowledge.

Assuming once more that the sum of the seven tests affords something of a criterion, we can partial out the factor of intelligence from the correlations we have already found with it. These partial correlations, showing the relation between each test and the sum of the seven, when intelligence is kept constant, are shown in the third column of Table VII.

Except for three of the tests, *viz.*, Provocations, Principles and Duties, these partials suggest one or another of the following conclusions: First, intelligence is the factor which determines the score on the remaining tests; or, second, intelligence is as much a factor in the sum as in any single test, except the three named; or, third, the criterion is not a measure of moral knowledge, and consequently, when intelligence is partialled out the correlations disappear; or fourth, there are other factors entering in, which are not yet accounted for.

With regard to the first two of these possibilities it should be remembered that whatever dependence on intelligence there is in the separate tests is not removed by merely adding the tests together. The low correlations with intelligence constant, therefore, merely point to the third and fourth possibilities, and further light will be thrown on these in what follows. Four factors that seem to enter into the causal relation under consideration will be discussed: age, vocabulary, home background and conduct.

2. Moral Knowledge and Age

Table VIII shows the relation between each test and the age of those taking it.

TABLE VIII

AGE IN RELATION TO THE TESTS

	r	No Samples	Mean Age	Age Range
1. Opposites	-.094	270	161	11.0-16.5
2. Similarities	-.068	304	167	11.5-18.0
3. Word Consequences	-.204	336	165	10.5-18.0
4. Causes473	700	144	8-19
5. Duties138	624	140	8-15
6. Comprehensions416	372	156	8.5-18.5
7. Provocations	-.097	259	150	8.5-17.0
9. Recognitions172	462	150	8.5-18
10. Principles026	260	146	8.0-16.0
11. Applications183	292	144	8.0-16.0
12. Vocabulary	-.091	240	140	8.0-16.0

The low correlations in this table are quite startling. Only two tests, Cause and Effect and Comprehensions, show significant correlation with age. That is, the older children do not do any better on the other tests than the younger children do. They may answer more questions, but their scores in relation to the standards used in scoring the papers are no higher. This may be regarded as a criticism of the standards or it may be valuable evidence regarding the way moral knowledge develops. In any case, whatever the tests measure, and they evidently measure something very well, this thing does not increase with the age of the pupils in grades five to eight.

3. *Moral Knowledge, Age and Intelligence*

Assuming that chronological age is a rough measure of experience, it is worth while to note what the effect on the correlations with age and intelligence is when each is in turn kept constant. Table IX gives the facts for four tests and for one school situation. In this situation and for the ages concerned, the correlation between age and intelligence was .396.

TABLE IX

CORRELATIONS OF AGE AND INTELLIGENCE WITH MORAL KNOWLEDGE

	Age	Intelligence	Age Int. Constant	Intelligence Age constant
Provocations	— .097	.145	— .170	.200
Applications183	.562	— .053	.543
Comprehensions416	.371	.316	.247
Cause and Effect.....	.473	.647	.310	.569

Careful study of this table brings out certain interesting comparisons. The answers to the Provocations situations seem not to be functions of either intelligence (native ability) or age (experience). Reference to the test may throw light on this. The items are like this:

Henry saw a big bully strike a little boy, so Henry walked up and gave the bully a real hard blow and knocked him down. Was this right, entirely wrong, or, if wrong, then excusable?

It is probable that judgments here are largely matters of attitude, rather than of cold analysis, and that these attitudes are picked up early in life and do not change much, at least not while the individual is in the grades. We have found by experiment that in the case of adults, answers to problems on this test are most tenaciously clung to once they are given, whereas answers to items on the Cause and Effect test are readily changed when other possible answers are suggested.

In the case of Applications, on the other hand, we seem to have something more nearly like pure intellect at work, for when intelligence is partialled out the correlation with age is zero, whereas, when age is partialled out the correlation with intelligence remains high. Experience affects the matter not at all.

In the case of Comprehensions, both age and intelligence hold their own in the partials, suggesting that knowledge of what to do in a situation involving ethical alternatives is a function of both intelligence and experience. In the Causes test, intelligence proves stronger than experience, though age retains a significant partial correlation. Although this correlation of .569 with I.Q. is larger for Causes than for Applications, comparison with the third column will show that the Applications correlation is more exclusively I.Q. than is that of Causes. That is, the Applications is more nearly an intelligence test pure and simple. But the reader is asked to suspend judgment on this point until other factors have been presented and discussed.

It certainly would appear possible to develop a series of tests each of which would measure a type of judgment different from that of every other, thus discriminating the influences of temperament, attitudes, knowledge and skill in handling moral problems. Also the recency of experience as it is registered in fixed attitudes or flexible opinions might be revealed by the nature of the test, as seems to be the case in Provocations as contrasted with Causes.

4. *Moral Knowledge, Vocabulary and Intelligence*

The moral knowledge tests all involve the use of words and to score high in them a child must have an adequate vocabulary. This statement is borne out by reference to Table II which gives the correlations between each test and the social-ethical vocabulary test. These run from .276 to .587 for the sentence tests. The correlation between the sum of the first seven and vocabulary is .623. But the correlation between the first seven and intelligence is .686, and the correlation between vocabulary and intelligence is .882. Since these correlations are all positive and high it is impossible to tell which is the predominating factor, as the partial correlation of any two with the third constant is approximately zero. All we can say is that moral knowledge, vocabulary and intelligence are closely interrelated, recognizing that there are also other factors entering into the situation which may be more significant than either vocabulary or intelligence in determining scores on the moral knowledge tests. Certainly we are not justified in attempting to substitute either a social-ethical vocabulary test or an intelligence test for a moral knowledge test.

There are two arguments against such a proposal. In the first place, the correlations concerned (.623 and .686) are not large enough to predict from either an intelligence score or a vocabulary score what the score on the moral knowledge test would be.

The second argument involves the question of whether a special ability test can be substituted for a general ability test. If moral knowledge is an achievement analogous to arithmetical ability, or, better, some other field of knowledge, then it is a function of both intelligence and experience. Any good measure of a specific school ability will correlate highly with intelligence. Yet no test of a single school achievement can be used as a substitute for an intelligence test, nor can an intelligence test, unless it contain material drawn specifically from a given field, supplant a test of achievement in that field. It may be noted in this connection that one of the tests which has the least relation to intelligence as shown in Table IX, nevertheless has one of the strongest correlations with the criterion.

5. *Moral Knowledge and Home Background*

The Good Manners test is not a validated measure of home background. Good manners are generally regarded as the product of home background, however, so that the relation of this test to the moral knowledge tests is interesting. The figures are given in Table X.

TABLE X
GOOD MANNERS AND MORAL KNOWLEDGE

	r	M	N
1. Causes174	62.6	43
2. Duties302	55.	49
3. Comprehensions443	58.0	86
4. Provocations396	54.0	50
5. Recognitions478	53.0	42
6. Principles438	55.0	62
7. Applications274	68.0	43
8. Vocabulary720	58.8	199
9. Intelligence583	58.8	201
10. Ages533	58.6	209
Sum of 1-7560

The correlations between good manners and vocabulary, age and intelligence all run higher than most of the corresponding correlations between

the separate moral knowledge tests and these three factors. Partialling out intelligence we find a remaining coefficient of .271 between the Good Manners test and the sum of seven tests used as a criterion of moral knowledge. These coefficients indicate that the same factors that lead to a knowledge of right and wrong lead also to a knowledge of etiquette.

6. *Moral Knowledge and Conduct*

A. School conduct ratings.

In one school reasonably good conduct ratings were secured which were compared with scores on the Moral Knowledge test material given in that school, with the results shown in Table XI.

TABLE XI
CONDUCT RATINGS AND MORAL KNOWLEDGE

	B, C, D Med. Score	A Med. Score
1. Causes	27	26
2. Duties	140	145
3. Recognitions	135	138
4. Comprehensions	19	19
5. Provocations	45	43
6. Principles	10	14
7. Applications	23	24

The first column gives the median score of those receiving a deportment grade of B, C or D, and the second column gives the median scores of those whose conduct grades were A. The differences are not significant. It is to be remembered, however, that these conduct grades are teachers' marks and not objective measures of conduct.

B. Moral Knowledge and Cheating.

Only one school is included in the following comparisons, which must be regarded therefore as suggestive rather than final. In the case of the behavior called cheating, the inquiry had available objective measures rather than judgments, procured by a technique which yields a reliability well over .80.

TABLE XII
RELATION OF CHEATING TO MORAL KNOWLEDGE

	r Home Cheating	r School Cheating	Partial r School Cheating Int. Constant
1. Cause and Effect	+.031	-.054	.000
2. Duties	-.178	-.296	-.164
3. Comprehensions	-.018	-.301	-.182
4. Provocations	-.129	-.241	-.202
5. Recognitions	-.091	-.181	.000
6. Principles	-.088	-.247	-.089
7. Applications	-.066	-.402	-.239
Sum of 1-7.....	-.121	-.385	...
Partial r, cheating and int. moral knowledge constant	+.094	+.037	...
Cheating and intelligence	-.201	-.392	...

The sum of the scores used in the table is unweighted. Just why there should be a higher correlation between moral knowledge and cheating in school than at home is not apparent.

It happens that the Cause-effect test correlates low with cheating and high with the other tests. If we omit this test from the sum, the correlation between cheating and the sum of the remaining six becomes $-.537$. This is higher than many would expect, and the first thought is that it is due

to the common factor of intelligence, as would be suggested by the correlation of $-.392$ shown in the table. The partial correlation, however, between cheating and the sum of the six moral knowledge tests (Cause-effect omitted) when intelligence is kept constant, is $+.402$ for school cheating. (r intelligence and sum of six, $.778$.)

The last column gives the partials of each moral knowledge test and cheating, with intelligence constant. Here the Applications test shows up best, although, as previously noted, it has a very large element of intelligence in it. That there is hardly any relation between it and age when intelligence is constant is in keeping with the fact that cheating and age correlate zero also.

Another related fact is shown in the partial correlation between intelligence and cheating when moral knowledge is kept constant, which becomes either zero or positive. This suggests that it is their superior moral knowledge rather than their intelligence which make the brighter children cheat less than those less gifted, and that, granted the same amount of moral knowledge, the more intelligent would cheat even more than the dull pupils.

These preliminary studies in the relation of the scores on the moral knowledge tests to other factors besides intelligence, *viz.*, age, vocabulary, home background and conduct, give sufficient evidence that something more is being measured than merely intelligence to justify further experimentation. Consequently our next task is to sift the old forms for the most valuable material and construct new forms which will give maximum results with a minimum expenditure of time.

Building New Forms

It was stated early in the paper that the tests as they stand would require several hours of testing time. There is evidently plenty of material, and our first task is to cut it up into usable portions, eliminating what is of no use, and arranging the remainder in test forms adapted to ordinary test conditions. The process of elimination, dissection and reassembly involved the following steps:

1. Items with ambiguous answers or with localized answers were thrown out.

2. Items on which ninety percent. of the children agreed with the standard were thrown out as failing to distribute the subjects. These were too easy to use as measures.

3. Tests correlating highly with intelligence and having no independent value were thrown out. The Opposites and Similarities tests came under this head. They correlate most highly with intelligence with the exception of the vocabulary test, and so far as vocabulary is concerned, the test of this name serves the purpose sufficiently. Unlike the Applications test, these two do not show up particularly well in their interrelations with other factors. The vocabulary test is retained because of its high reliability and because of the opportunity it gives of measuring the extent to which moral knowledge scores are matters of vocabulary.

4. Each test was split into two forms, each having the same number of items, each item of one form being of the same order of difficulty as the corresponding item of the equivalent form.

5. Including the Foresights tests of which the eight items eliciting the widest range and largest number of responses were retained, there were now

ten tests of two forms each, requiring ninety minutes of testing time. So the ten tests were put into two scales of five tests each.

The first three steps are clear, but the last two need explanation. The reader is requested to refer to the illustration given at the beginning of the paper showing how the answers to each item were recorded. To find the way each item was treated, it was only necessary to add up for each column the number of each kind of answer given. As the records were tabulated by groups, this gave for each group tested the total number of each kind of answer given to each item. The record for one group for one test would be:

PRINCIPLES TEST																
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	etc.
No. +	5	19	9	6	34	24	33	29	19	4	33	28	35	33	
No. -	30	16	26	29	1	11	2	6	16	31	2	7	..	2	

The group results were combined into grade results, and the grade results into totals, and the totals translated into percentages, so that the final sheets looked like this:

PRINCIPLES TEST												
		1		2		3		4		5		etc.
		+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	
Percentages	26	74	80	20	48	52	37	63	86	14	

These results were then compared with the standard and the percent. agreeing with the standard was indicated, and made the measure of the difficulty of each item. These difficulty values were then placed on the original test opposite the items, and the percentages giving each kind of answer were indicated above the multiple choice response offered in the test. For each test, therefore, there was a basic work sheet such as the following:

PRINCIPLES TEST			% correct		% answers
			74	1. If anyone hurts you it is up to you to hurt him.....	26 74
			20	2. No one should be forgiven for a wrong deed until he has asked for forgiveness.....	True False 80 20
			52	3. It is best to have nothing to do with an unpopular boy or girl	True False 48 52
					True False

The selection of equivalent items and the arrangement of these items in their order of difficulty became then a mechanical matter.

In deciding which of the ten tests should go into each of the two scales, reference was made to the correlation tables. The tests were divided so that in each scale the average intercorrelation between the tests was at a minimum and at the same time the correlation between the two scales was at a maximum. The scales, with the number of elements and the time required for each test are shown in Table XIII.

TABLE XIII

Scale A		T	E	Scale B		T	E
1. Cause and Effect.....		9	37	1. Foresights		12	4
2. Duties		5	30	2. Recognitions		10	43
3. Comprehensions		10	10	3. Principles		2	10
4. Provocations		10	17	4. Applications		10	10
5. Word Consequences.....		10	16	5. Ethical Vocabulary.....		10	50
		44				44	

The column marked T is the time required for the test and the column marked E is the number of elements. These figures are the same for each form.

From our preliminary data we estimate that Scale A will correlate about .90 with Scale B and that each scale will have a reliability of over .90. Each scale will correlate about .60 with intelligence and the two scales combined will correlate around .70 with intelligence. •

This general scheme seems to us to be the best combination of statistical reliability and practical administration. Either of such scales might be given easily in one hour which is a period and a half in day school. A boys' club or Sunday-school class, or any such organization might give one scale at one period, and, if desired, the other scale at a second period. Or they might give only one. Each scale has two equivalent forms so that a test might be given with a time interval between for purposes of comparison.

THIRD ARTICLE

THE CODE VALUE OF MORAL KNOWLEDGE SCORES*

In the first two articles of this series the process of building a test of moral knowledge was described. This process included the selection of material, its organization into test forms, the administration of the tests, methods of scoring, the determination of the reliability of the material, and preliminary studies in its value as a research tool. The second article closed with a reference to two scales of two forms each which were projected as the most useful arrangement of the material thus evaluated.

These scales were printed as planned. The material of each type tried out and found usable was arranged in an order of difficulty and divided into two parts of equal range of difficulty and almost equivalent item for item. These two parts of each test were placed one in each form, which made the two forms of each scale of identical difficulty and equivalent material.

The ten tests selected were also divided into two groups of five each so that the two scales would take about the same length of time and correlate in about the same way with the sum.

Scale A included a Word Consequences Test somewhat modified from the original form and therefore unevaluated. Scale B contained the Foresight Test also not as yet statistically treated. The complete arrangement was given in the previous article.

The work remaining to be done on this material as thus constituted related to the following problems:

1. What are the statistical values of the two relatively new tests introduced—Foresight and Word Consequences?
2. How will the reliability of the material be affected by its present arrangement in a battery, involving not only the reduction in length of test (a calculable effect) but also a certain sequence of tests?
3. To what extent are answers to the questions determined by the temporary emotional set of the occasion on which the tests are administered?
4. To what extent are answers to the questions merely reflections of the opinions which the children think are approved by the authorities under whose auspices the tests are given?
5. What are the major sources of the knowledge or quasi-knowledge the children exhibit on the tests?
6. What codes characterize children of different groups—age, sex, race, community, culture, etc.? How do these compare with codes of adults of the same or other communities and groups—teachers, parents, Sunday-school and club leaders, etc.?
7. What norms in terms of scores can be built up for practical comparisons of individuals and groups?
8. What further light can these tests throw on human behavior as measured by other techniques employed by the Character Education Inquiry?
9. What is the best arrangement of the present material in test form?
10. What new tests are still needed?

I. Problems 1-3

Present knowledge permits us no comment on the Foresight test as contemplated work on this material had to give place to other interests. The

*In the study of the Shift Technique the investigators had the cooperation of Mr. Leonard Stidley, a graduate student at Teachers College.

results obtained on the Word Consequences test confirmed our first impressions that this made too little contribution to the battery to justify retaining it. It is too difficult, for one thing, and also too much like an intelligence test. Neither of these tests, therefore, are included in the moral knowledge scores to be reported. So much for Problem 1.

With regard to Problems 2 and 3 some information has been incidentally gathered which will need to be supplemented before a final battery of tests is offered for general use. We find that when the shortened tests are given on different days in the two forms into which the original material was split, the actual correlations run slightly lower than the predicted correlations. The following table gives the details.

TABLE I

Test—Scale A	This year			Last year			This year corrected
	r	N	Elements	r	N	Elements	
Cause—Effect441	150	36	.637	378	45-45	.496
Duties400	150	29	.713	154	50-50	.571
Comprehensions400	150	10	.675	355	15-15	.500
Provocations583	150	17	.579	256	18-18	.583
Scale A751			.881			.821
Scale B							
Recognitions653	185	43	.664	100	50-50	.653
Principles348	185	10	.526	331	12-12	.348
Applications522	185	10	.682	329	11-11	.522
Vocabulary896	185	50	.960		75-75	.928
Scale B862			.895			.864
Scales A and B900			.945			.915

The sum of the first four tests of Scale A (Cause-effect, Duties, Comprehensions and Provocations) shows a reliability of .751 as against a predicted reliability of .881. The last four tests of Scale B (Recognitions, Principles, Applications and Vocabulary), show a correlation of .862 as against a predicted correlation of .895. Had these tests been as long as those last year for estimating the expected *r*'s, the *r*'s this year would have been respectively .821 for Scale A and .864 for Scale B. The sum of the two scales together last year yielded a predicted *r* of .945. The actual *r* this year is .90, with .915 as the *r* that would have been obtained had the tests not been reduced in length.

The lower reliabilities may be explained in part by the fact that in building the tests out of the material used last year we deliberately excluded all items on which more than 90% of the answers agreed with the criterion. If this operated to cut down the correlations between the two forms we would expect the greatest differences in the case of tests where the cuts were greatest. With the exception of the Principles test this seems to be what happened.

Another factor tending to reduce the correlations was the difference between the two situations. The drop in the case of the relatively stable Word Knowledge test lends support to the suggestion that great pains need to be taken to keep the situation as constant as possible when tests of this sort are given on different occasions. It happens that the above figures were obtained on the populations on which the shift technique was employed. Doubtless when the examiner returned on a second day to give the other set of tests there was a hangover effect from the manipulation permitted on the first day which tended to interfere with the behavior. This is seen in a comparison of the means and SD's of the equivalent tests exhibited on the

separate occasions. Other things being equal the means and SD's should have been the same, as the material which went into the tests was statistically equivalent to start with. As a matter of fact both the means and the SD's shifted. Using the index of variability as a measure of this change $\left(\frac{SD}{M}\right)$

we find the following facts, where V_1 =the variability of Form 1 and V_2 =the variability of Form 2.

TABLE II

	V_1	V_2	$V_1 - V_2$
Causes	1.930	1.50	.430
Duties164	.140	.024
Comprehensions383	.246	.137
Provocations260	.151	.049
Recognitions242	.222	.020
Principles	1.000	1.000	.000
Applications405	.284	.121
Vocabulary516	.563	-.047

From this it can only be concluded that something was affecting the behavior of the children which caused them to take the second test in a somewhat different way from that of the first day. This together with the cuts mentioned might easily account for the reliabilities being lower than predicted.

Evidently four tests are not a sufficient basis for measuring codes with this material. Not less than eight are needed, and the situations must be carefully guarded against varying attitudes which might influence the behavior of the pupils.

II. Problems 4-6

Underlying problems four to six is a fundamental question concerning the nature of moral knowledge. There is a sense in which the very term contradicts itself, for morality, so far as it possesses an intellectual aspect, is more a matter of judgment than of knowledge. There are no "right" data or "wrong" data to be known. There is only the right *use* of data, or the wrong *use* of data. One may know the data involved and this knowledge may be tested. But knowing the "right" means knowing what is called right—what others think is right. These data are the opinions of others or one's own opinions. They are not comparable to the "facts" that are the objects of knowledge in the usual meaning of the term.

In the case of facts, one's opinion is of small moment. The veridity of the fact is not dependent on any single man's opinion regarding the importance of the fact. Ford cars are made in Detroit whether the child that takes the test containing the statement agrees or not. But in the case of questions involving moral principles, such as whether one should steal when starving, the relevant knowledge has to do with laws, consequences, concepts of society, the ethics of property, and we are at once in the field of opinion. It is well to "know" what the current opinions are, and to know also what one's own opinion is, if one has any independent opinion, but as opinions vary from time to time and from group to group, and as opinion as to what is the prevailing or the best or standard or conventional opinion is rarely based on scientific study, the answers to moral knowledge tests cannot be treated in the same way as answers to general information tests, where the data to be reported on may be verified.

As social science develops and more becomes known concerning the nature of human relations and the laws of social behavior, a larger amount of material essential for the intelligent guidance of conduct will become organ-

ized into a body of knowledge comparable to historic fact or scientific fact and the individual's mastery of it can then be tested. But at present such insight as we have into the laws of conduct is largely esoteric, the prophetic assertion of moral leaders, to be taken on faith rather than to be regarded as scientifically established. Fortunately such insights have been available for the guidance of men, for only very recently has the field of morality been opened up to scientific study. Now that people are increasingly willing, however, to make their behavior the subject matter of scientific investigation, it is essential that the ethical dicta of the great moral leaders as well as the conventional codes of those less inspired be regarded not as final immutable laws but as hypotheses worthy of careful study and application.

Our Cause-effect test and the Foresight test which has yet to be perfected are in this field of verifiable fact, and the Vocabulary test may be similarly classified. The rest, however, belong to the field of codes. But whose codes?

Some codes, such as "conventional morality," are rather vague in outline and specification. Others, such as the moral theology of the Catholic Church, are entirely precise and clean cut. In general, where codes are the result of the accumulation of varied experiences, they are vague, and when they are deliberately formulated, as in the Boy Scouts, they are definite. As any child is not only a member of the community with its conventional codes of which he has been made aware through parental and school discipline, but is also a member of the fraternity of youth, with youth's own heritage of attitudes and practices, and in addition is a member of some section of the community, such as the exclusive residence section of the wealthy, or the more humble and congested district where the pressure of economic necessity lays its heavy hand on every family, and besides all this, may be a member of a church which teaches definite formulations of right and wrong and of a club which has also its own formal code—in consequence of these varied and overlapping social contacts, the child's code is naturally a complex affair. Who can say what part of it, if any, is truly his own? On any one occasion, which code is functioning? The acquisition of a stable personal code is probably a matter of slow growth, and doubtless many never achieve one. "When in Rome do as the Romans do" is a self-preservative caution which necessitates the adoption of the approved code, at least in words, and, as far as necessary, in acts.

How, then, are the answers to the moral knowledge tests to be interpreted? What code is represented? To what extent are the children's answers the Roman answers, and to what extent are they the Barbarian answers of the casual visitor to the City? We have made an effort to throw a little light on this problem.

The Shift Technique

In a suburban community where all the children in grades five to eight were given the Moral Knowledge tests, certain groups were handled in such a way as to elicit maximum "reflected" answers on the tests. That is, acting on the assumption that the answers were conscious efforts to say what would be approved, we defined what would be approved so that there would be no ambiguity about it in the minds of the pupils. Four techniques were used:

1. *The SAA Technique.* This involved the use of an answer sheet on which the standard answers were printed. The children first took one form of the Moral Knowledge tests. Then the answer sheets were passed out and

the children were given a chance to change their answers if they wanted to, so they would correspond with the answers approved by the adults. The relevant parts of the directions were as follows: Before the tests were passed the examiner said:

"These are called 'tests' because they are to be used to find out what anyone knows about right or wrong. But what *is* right and what *is* wrong? We realize that some things that parents and teachers and older people call wrong children may not think wrong at all. And grown people sometimes ask children to do things which the children think are wrong.

"Therefore we want to find out what children *really* think. We want you to help us by giving us what you think are right answers.

"It may help you to know what some of the best informed grown people to whom these questions have been given think about the answers. You will probably disagree with them on many points. If you do, we want you to feel perfectly free to give your very own opinion. No one is going to think the worse of you for that.

"So after we take the test, I will pass out a sheet showing how some teachers and parents and other people would answer the questions."

Red pencils were used in taking the test. Then the pencils were collected and blue ones passed. These directions followed:

"Now you can compare your answers with those of the answer sheets which show the opinion of some of the best informed people, such as parents, teachers and others.

"Now look at the first test. Compare your answer with that given on the answer sheet. If your answer is the same as the answer sheet it means that you agree with these people. If it is different it means that you don't agree with them. Read your questions and see whether you have changed your mind. It will make no difference to your standing whether your answer is like the key or not. But if you feel on second thought that the answer sheet is right you may change your answer. If you do change your answer cross out the red mark and make a new mark showing what you now think. . . . Etc."

The changes made are distinguished by the difference in the pencil used, and are presumably in direct proportion to the pupils' desire to give an approved answer.

2. *The SBA Technique.* This also used answer sheets, only this time they were passed out with the test so that the pupils had them before them as they worked. The directions began as for SAA, the last two paragraphs reading:

"It may help you to know what some of the best informed grown people to whom these questions have been given think about the answers. You will probably disagree with them on many points. If you do, we want you to feel perfectly free to give your very own opinion. No one is going to think the worse of you for that.

"So when I pass out these papers I will pass out a sheet showing how some teachers and parents and other people would answer the questions."

After the tests were passed the examiner said:

"Now remember that what we want is your very own opinion. It will make no difference to your grade whether you agree with these answers or not. If you do agree of course your paper will be marked like the answer sheet. If you have some other answer, never mind the answer sheet at all, but give your own answers. Etc., etc."

In this technique the extent to which the answer sheets were used as a substitute for original opinions is indicated by the correlation between the scores as thus obtained and those secured from the use of the other form of the same grade which was subsequently given without the answer sheets, or by a comparison of the respective means.

3. *The SS Technique.* Here the standard answers were entered in red on the tests themselves, and these were passed to the pupils with the request that they correct them if they were wrong. The answers were stated to be those of the "best people." The relevant directions were:

"On this test you are going to change places with your teacher. Usually grown people give children tests and then mark them as they see fit. This time some grown people have taken a test and I am asking you to correct their papers. The way these grown people marked the papers is shown here."—point.

Pass the Form 1 *marked papers*. "Fill in the blanks on the front page. Now open to test 1. The people who marked these papers this way were teachers, parents and others who are supposed to know what is right and wrong. But I want you to point out their mistakes, or at least where you think they are wrong. If you think they have answered a question correctly, mark it C. If you think they are wrong, make *another mark* in pencil where the right mark should be. If you don't know, make no mark at all. Thus on Test 1, if you think the first statement is false, as grown people do, mark it C. But if you think that the statement is true, draw a line under the word *True*. Is that clear? Begin . . . Etc."

4. *The SD Technique*. In this case no answer sheets were used, but the children were given the tests in the ordinary way (except that red pencils were used) and then they were asked to indicate what they thought most people would give as the answers. Blue pencils were used on this part of the test. The directions read:

"Now I am going to ask you to do something hard. I want you to go back to your papers and look at the first test. You have been giving your own opinion on these answers. Now what do you think most people think about these things? Very likely you feel that your opinion is in some respects different from that of other people. It may be better. It may be worse. But how would most folks answer these questions? Now take your blue pencil and show any differences between your answers and what you think would be the answers of the average person. Mark any changes with your pencil. Do this for all the tests. Take your time."

The double pencil technique shows differences in opinion, if there be any. The number of differences is theoretically in proportion to the originality of their first answers, or, conversely, the number of *likenesses* shows the extent to which their first answers were thought by them to be conventional or expected answers.

These four techniques make use of two standards—the "ideal" score basis previously discussed, and represented to the pupils as the opinion of persons to whom they presumably looked up, and the conventional or general adult opinion, represented only in the imagination of the children. Three devices were used to confront the children with the explicit "ideal" standard, and one with the conventional standard. In two techniques the sensitiveness of social approval should operate to increase the amount of change, and in two techniques it should operate to decrease the amount of change.

Space does not permit giving the entire results of these techniques, but they may be summarized as follows:

The SA Technique. As the pupil had opportunity to change only the answers which were not like the answer sheet, and as his additions from the answer sheet beyond the point in the test which he had reached by his own efforts are not indications of changes, the percentage of change is found by dividing the number of changes he made in his wrong answers by the number of answers he got wrong. This method brought out a 31% change, nearly half of which was made by 25% of the pupils. 69% of their answers which were not like the key they refused to change. Dependence was expressed by an average of 14.2 changes per scale or 2.8 per test.

Over against the fact that 89% stated that it was their duty to read the Bible every day (apparently a conventional response) must be set the fact that very few of these children changed their answers when confronted with the answer sheet which showed that the "standard" did not regard it as their duty to do so.

The SS Technique. As the pupils were asked to "correct" these papers and give their own opinion where it differed from the opinions of the adults, the number of changes made is an indication of the possession of a fixed opinion associated with some other code than this adult code.

Inasmuch as each pupil theoretically agreed with the answers given to a certain extent, these agreements must be allowed for. An equivalent control test was used to determine the area of doubt within which change was significant. This consisted of the number *tried* minus the number *right* on the control test. This technique brought out a 41% change. When in doubt, that is, 59% of the answers were kept like the adult standard and 41% were changed to conform to their own independent opinion. This independence was expressed by an average of 21.2 changes or corrections per scale or 4.3 per test.

The amount of overlapping of the adult code as represented in the answer sheets and the code reported by the children is shown by the proportion of answers *not changed* within the area of true effort to the total number of questions tried on the control test. This proportion was 84%.

The SD Technique, where no standard was stated but the children were asked to show how they differed from conventional standards, however they might conceive them, brought out a 47% change or 47% sense of difference or independence. This independence was expressed by an average of fifty-three changes per scale or 10.5 per test.

The SBA Technique, where the answer sheets or standard was given out along with the test, a forced likeness of only about five points on the mean total score for each scale was shown over a mean total bona fide score of 68.6 for Scale A and 74.4 for Scale B, or a percentage of susceptibility of 31 percent, which is identical with that shown by the SAA technique.

When the changes made by each pupil are regarded as a score, they yield a correlation of $-.047$ with moral knowledge scores. We may say, on the one hand, that the moral knowledge scores, therefore, which differ widely from child to child, are not merely efforts to repeat the school standards, but represent something more fundamental. Or, on the other hand, we may say that the tendency to make a good appearance does not correlate with moral knowledge.

The SA Test

Another approach was made by the use of a paper and pencil test. We assumed the existence of a tendency to make answers correspond to what was regarded as accepted opinion. We assumed, further, a general tendency to tell the truth apart from any specific gain to be derived from falsification. This gave us a motive and a resistance. We then created a situation in which what the child regarded as the approved answer could not be given truthfully. The extent to which a child would falsify to gain approval measured his social sensitiveness.

Obviously there will be many children whom such a test will not measure, inasmuch as the disposition to tell the truth at all costs is too great to be overcome. But it is fair to presume that such a child would also tell the truth on any sort of paper and pencil tests, so that its purpose in getting at the tendency to express an opinion without regard to its acceptability to the particular group responsible for the tests is realized even in such cases.

The test is of the true-false type and is in two forms of thirty-six questions each. These questions are largely based on the Duties test, in Scale A of the Moral Knowledge series. They are such questions as these:

1. Did you ever accept the credit or honor for anything when you knew the credit or honor belonged to someone else?.....Yes No
2. Did you ever act greedily by taking more than your share of anything?..Yes No

3. Did you ever blame another for something you had done when you knew all the time it was your fault?.....Yes No
4. Do you usually report the number of a car you see speeding?.....Yes No
5. Do you always preserve order when the teacher is out of the room?...Yes No
6. Do you report other pupils whom you see cheating?.....Yes No
7. Did you ever pretend to understand a thing when you really did not understand it?.....Yes No
8. Have you ever disobeyed any law of your country or rule of your school?.....Yes No
9. Do you speak to all the people you are acquainted with, even the ones you do not like?.....Yes No
10. Do you usually call the attention of people to the fact that you have on new shoes or a new suit or dress?.....Yes No

Any child could answer some truthfully as scored above, but the individual who could answer all thirty-six truthfully would be a pious fraud. Furthermore, the items are such as adults are apt to represent as "duties." Children are frequently told to do or not do the sort of thing asked about. The pressure to claim the virtue specified is therefore considerable.

The scores on this test are "amount" scores, without any predetermined point separating those possessing the tendency from those not possessing it, and can be used as they stand for correlation purposes.

The two forms, given to 133 children, yield a reliability coefficient of .836.

The moral knowledge scores correlate with the SA scores .121 in one school and -.029 in another.

Here again there seems to be evidence that the necessity of making a good appearance is not so strongly felt in the case of the moral knowledge tests as in the case of the inquisition about behavior. But we need to be cautious in drawing this conclusion, inasmuch as it presupposes a knowledge on the child's part of what would be approved. He had no answer sheets to show him. If he did not know what the approved answer was he of course could not give it anyway. The SA test was given a conventional score, as just now described, to bring out the child's tendency to appear conventional. But the moral knowledge tests are scored by an ideal not a conventional standard.

Now the SA test, as has been stated, was built around the Duties test of Scale A, having eighteen questions in common with it. So we correlated the score on the Duties test with the score on the SA test and found correlations of .022 and .059 in two groups of 146 and 208 respectively, corresponding to what was found in correlating the total moral knowledge scores with the SA scores.

But a comparison of the way in which each element was handled brings out this interesting fact, that in one group fourteen out of the eighteen and in another, twelve out of the eighteen items were answered in the same way on the Duties test and on the SA test. That is, the children represented themselves as doing what they had previously given as their duty in about two thirds of the situations presented. When the Duties test is scored by the same standard as that used in scoring the SA test, the correlation between the two becomes .77.

How is this likeness to be interpreted? We have the same situations dealt with in two ways. One asks, What is your duty? The other, What is your practice? The concept of duty is of course a social function, a function of groups, a matter of code. Either the child pictures himself as living up

fairly well to his duty, or else presents a picture of both code and practice that is supposed to portray the "correct" behavior in the situation concerned, without regard to whether his own behavior or his own code or the code of some other group than the school group corresponds to the picture. Of course his codes may and probably do overlap very considerably as the summary of the results of the shift technique tends to indicate. It does not follow that because he may have lied to make a good appearance as to conduct on the SA test he also lied in stating his opinion as to his duty. Since he was not asked to say whether this notion of duty was what he learned in school or at home or in clubs or what he felt to be the code of children in their own world, we cannot speak with confidence as to his sincerity in giving his answers. The consistency of results, as found by correlating comparable forms of the same test, indicates that what is stated as moral knowledge has a certain coherence and stability, and whether lived up to or not, points the way to action that is regarded as "proper".

Moral Knowledge and Intelligence

In our second article correlations with intelligence were given which are corroborated by this year's testing. An unselected population yields a coefficient of at least .50 between mental age and the ability to give mature answers to the questions in the tests. Evidently there is a large factor of intelligence present. What this would be if the tests were scored from the standpoint of convention has not yet been determined.

The conclusion seems warranted that the moral knowledge tests reflect codes, and that there is considerable overlapping among these codes.

FOURTH ARTICLE

SOME PROBABLE SOURCES OF MORAL KNOWLEDGE IN CHILDREN*

In our third article were listed ten questions relating to the further development of the moral knowledge tests and their possible uses. Questions five and six were as follows:

What are the major sources of the knowledge or quasi-knowledge the children exhibit on the tests?

What codes characterize children of different groups—age, sex, race, community, culture, etc.? How do these compare with codes of adults of the same or other communities and groups—teachers, parents, Sunday-school and club leaders, etc.?

These questions Messrs. Sonquist and Kerr have attempted to answer. That the answers are not final they would be the first to assert. But that their methods are most suggestive for future research in this field no one will doubt.

The writers have been painstaking in the care with which they have used their statistical techniques, securing advice and criticism at every turn. But the results are none the less fundamentally their own. The Inquiry welcomes this informal addition to its findings.

It has seemed best to introduce here and there certain controversial matters in order to promote discussion of the paper. The ensuing footnotes recall the first edition of Wells' *Outline of History* in which criticisms and replies were both included in the notes to the text. We trust that this practice of printing attack and defense will prove suggestive for similar articles.

The Character Education Inquiry.

The multiplicity of books, articles and interviews by students of child life bears witness to the fact that there are widely divergent ideas as to what causes are behind the so-called new standards which present day youth is setting up. Indeed these attempts by many men of many minds to evaluate child standards of action rather indicate also that as yet we have no accurate knowledge of what are the most direct sources from which children derive their notions of right and wrong which, solidifying into codes, later become their adult standards of action. Various institutions are building programs for what they feel to be worthy attempts to educate children in morals and ethics; prizes are offered and won, for "moral codes" for children, as if the intellectual acceptance of an adult fabricated code was an index of a standard; schools are adopting courses in ethics and morals, and Sunday schools and clubs are continuing, with added emphasis on conduct, the presenting of truths which have a moral implication, and all of this without scientific data as to what is making actual contribution to children's knowledge of right and wrong.

In pursuing the investigation implied by the subject of this paper, the writers have not gone on the assumption that knowledge and behavior are highly correlated. In the first article on "Testing the Knowl-

*Dr. May and Dr. Hartshorne conducted a research course in the Measurement of Character during 1925-26, and this paper was written by Sonquist and Kerr in this connection.

edge of Right and Wrong," by Hartshorne and May, in the February, 1926 number of RELIGIOUS EDUCATION, we find this paragraph:

"One of our problems is to discover what the relation is between behavior and the knowledge of right and wrong. Furthermore, we do not assume that word behavior and a true knowledge of right and wrong are necessarily correlated. It may be that overt action is a far better indication of what a man really knows about right and wrong than his verbal responses are."

Nevertheless, the students who have undertaken the research which will be described below feel that we will be rendering a certain service if we can to a degree ascertain what are some of the probable sources from which a child does get his knowledge of right and wrong actions.

By consensus of opinion, the groups which have a major influence upon the life of a child are ordinarily four or five. He lives in a home; he spends a large part of his time in school; he has friends; he is probably in some institution for religious instruction at least once a week; and he may belong to an organized club having an adult leader. We recognize that there are other factors contributing to his fund of ethical concepts, such as commercialized amusements, books read independently of any of the five above mentioned influences and, in the middle and later adolescent years, employers of youth.

Any attempt to undertake research must of course be limited in such a way as to secure reliable and accurate results. This research is limited to a group of children, from the fifth through the ninth grades in seven different day schools, as studied and tested in four different situations for the five major influences, *viz.*, homes, schools, Sunday schools, organized clubs and friends.

Before more accurately describing the fields in which the investigation was conducted, it may be well to state the problems to be dealt with:

1. Does a child's knowledge of right and wrong tend to be more like his Sunday-school teacher's, his parents', his adult club leader's, or his child friends'?

2. Is there a moral knowledge age, similar to mental age? In other words will a fifth grade child have as high a code as a seventh grade child, or a ninth grade one?

3. Do boys rate the same as girls in so far as the knowledge of right and wrong is concerned?

4. Does a child have a uniform code of morals or does his code vary according to the group in which he finds himself at the moment? That is, is there a typical day-school code, Sunday-school code, etc.?

There are many other questions which will naturally arise through the discussion of the investigation and the description of results. Some of these will be indicated as we proceed, although solutions of most of them will have to be delayed until a further study of our data can be made.

Description of the Fields

This investigation was conducted in six suburban towns ranging from three hundred to three thousand in population and in one small city of thirty-odd thousand population. One school in each of the seven

communities was used as a primary testing unit. The foreign population of all seven is about ten per cent of the total. These children are largely American-born of foreign-born parents. Negro children number about ten per cent of the total in the six smaller communities and about fifteen per cent of the total in the larger town. In the smaller places the children practically all come from average homes, but in the junior high school of the larger town there is a very great range both in intelligence and in economic background. Of the total of 1,159 children tested in the school situations, 690 came from the fifth through the eighth grades of the six smaller schools and 469 came from the seventh, eighth and ninth grades of a junior high school in the larger community.

Technique

The "Moral Knowledge Tests" devised by Drs. May and Hartshorne of the Character Education Inquiry and described in the February and April (1926) numbers of *RELIGIOUS EDUCATION*, were used as a basis of our study. The reader is referred to these articles for a complete description of the building of the tests. For our purpose we decided to use Forms 1 and 2 of Scale A only, which are subdivided as follows:

F	Cause and Effect.....	36	Situations
	Duties	29	"
	Comprehensions	10	"
	Provocations	17	"
	Word Consequences	16	"

In order to have tests which would be commensurate with these, but which would be devoid of too great carry-over from one form to another, it was necessary to build on the two forms of Scale A, two additional tests. The new Form 3 was built on Form 1 and the new Form 4 was similarly built on Form 2. This was done very largely by reversing statements, using negatives where the original had positively worded situations, and *vice versa*. In every case the moral problem faced was left identical. The new forms were given a different appearance, Form 3 being mimeographed and Form 4 being multigraph-printed. In so far as was possible a different set-up of each test was also used. That is, "YES—NO" was substituted for "TRUE—FALSE," etc. The five tests of the battery were arranged in different order.

The reliability of the two new forms was determined by giving the parallel forms of the test to the same children in the seventh, eighth and ninth grades of a junior high school which was not to be used in the investigation. In each case all three grades were represented in each part of the test in order to have a vertical cross section of the school life. Under the direction of the research department of the school system of which this school is a part, finely trained teachers administered the tests. A total of 164 children took both Forms 1 and 3, and 151 children took both Forms 2 and 4.

These tests, when scored in as nearly comparable ways as possible, showed the following means:

TABLE I

Form 1	Mean 67.14	Form 3	Mean 67.12
Form 2	Mean 69.11	Form 4	Mean 69.32

This striking agreement between the means of Forms 1 and 3, and Forms 2 and 4 indicates an almost equal degree of difficulty of the original forms and those devised for the purposes of this study. The slightly higher means for Forms 2 and 4 might seem to show that they were more difficult than Forms 1 and 3 but this difference is well within the probable error of these means which leads us to believe that all four tests are practically of the same degree of difficulty.

A study of the co-efficients of correlation reveals the following relationships:

TABLE II

'r' of Forms 1 and 3 equals	.651 \pm .03
'r' of Forms 2 and 4 equals	.607 \pm .05
*'r' of Forms 1 and 2 equals	.751 \pm .02

With these results we feel that the forms are sufficiently comparable to warrant their use in this study, although we realize that for many types of research a reliability of less than .90 would be of little service.

Administration

In every case the day school was used as the primary testing unit. In order to secure the necessary information concerning other groups to which the children belonged, we used a "Survey Blank" asking for the following facts:

- Name School Grade.
- Address Name of home room teacher.
- Age Names of three favorite teachers.
- Names of at least three best friends, either boys or girls, or both, *in this school*.
- Name of Sunday school attended.
- Name of Sunday-school teacher.
- If belonging to a club, Scout Troop, Camp Fire Girls, or any group which has an older person as leader or adviser, and meets more than two times a month:
 - Name of club.
 - Leader's name.
 - Where it meets.
- Names, ages and school grades of brothers and sisters.
- Father's name, or name and address of step-father or guardian.

When these blanks were distributed in the schools it was made very plain to the children that we were asking for some information which they might consider rather personal. They were given to understand that no teacher or other person connected with the schools would ever see them. They were told that each blank would have a number and that in using the information the investigators would refer always to numbers and never to names. They were asked specifically to fill out the blanks as completely as possible, and then turn them face downward on their desks. This was done, after which the blanks were collected by a pupil and taken by him directly to the investigator. School teachers and principals gave excellent co-operation in maintaining absolutely fair-play in this regard.

After the blanks were returned they were alphabetized by grades and

*Taken from the third article of the series referred to, which discusses this problem of reliability.

each grade was assigned a set of serial numbers, *e. g.*, 7th grade, 1 to 200; 8th grade, 201 to 324, etc. Each blank was carefully gone over. The data which it contained were carefully tabulated, by numbers, under proper heads on separate charts. This information enabled us to approach Sunday schools and organized clubs and gave us data on how many tests we would need in sending tests into the homes. The securing of this information on this blank took an average of ten minutes. The writers believe that it is better used separately from the tests.

Examiners. In all cases the tests were administered by trained and experienced examiners, either from outside the school system itself (advanced normal school students in educational psychology were used in many places), or by teachers designated by the research department of the school system. Specially trained testers were used in all Sunday schools and club situations and in many cases the tests were administered by the writers themselves.

Testing in the Schools. Scale A, Form 1 was used in the school situation. All five parts of the test were given, forty-five minutes being allowed as maximum time. On the average not more than forty minutes was required; 1159 children took the tests, together with thirty-one teachers and one vice-principal. Nine teachers did not care to take the tests.

Testing in Sunday Schools. Scale A, Form 4 was used for Sunday schools. A necessary interval of two or three weeks elapsed after the tests were used in the day schools before they could be given in Sunday schools. Children were listed as being from 110 different Sunday schools. Tests were given in but 21 of these. In others, there were but two or three children who had also had the test in day school and the irregular attendance would probably have resulted in much wasted time and effort if we had tried to reach such small numbers. In some few cases official objection prevented giving the tests. 650 tests were administered in Sunday schools. Of this number we secured 276 tests of children who had also had the test in day school. 51 Sunday-school teachers took the test at the same time. Of the 1159 children who took the tests in day school, about 17% did not designate any Sunday school.

Administration of the tests in Sunday schools was rather more difficult than in day school. It was necessary to provide pencils and in many cases writing boards because there were no tables or other writing spaces available. The lesson time was too short for adequate testing, although in most cases the class period was extended to allow completion of the tests. The general atmosphere of the Sunday schools was not adapted to fair testing.

Testing in Clubs. Scale A, Form 3 was used for club groups. Of the 1159 children tested in day school approximately 500 said they were members of some club. 70 clubs were listed. Tests were administered in 20 clubs, to a total of 205 children, of which number 104 had the test in day school. 666 children said they were not in any club having an adult leader and meeting place out of school, but it must be remembered that these include children of the fifth and sixth grades. In the junior high school, of 469 children taking the test 172 said they were not members of any club. 59 children in this school were members of school clubs meeting in the school. These children were not included in the club testing program because it was felt that it would be a duplication of the school situation. 17 club leaders took the test.

The club testing presented better administration conditions than the Sunday-school testing, although it was not on a par with the day-school situation. There is a wide age range in most clubs, little close grading and irregular attendance.

Testing in the Homes. Scale A, Form 4, with a specially printed set of directions on the front sheet, was used for the home testing of parents and children. In each school classroom, explanation was made about the use of the tests in the homes, and caution was given against receiving or giving any help. The tests going into homes were each given the serial number which appeared on the school test of the child from that home. This made it unnecessary for parents to write their names on the blanks. An explanatory letter giving assurance of the absolutely impersonal use of the tests and requesting parental co-operation with the investigation, was sent with each set of tests into each home. A return envelope, addressed to the Character Education Inquiry, was included, with the request that the finished tests be enclosed and sealed in that envelope and either mailed to the headquarters of the Inquiry in New York, or returned to the school within four days.* 620 children took the test in the homes. In 476 families either one or both parents took the test and in 276 cases both parents as well as at least one child were represented.

Scoring and Weighting. In scoring these tests, the fifth section, "Word Consequences," was not used, because as yet no satisfactory means have been devised for scoring it. Had this section been used in measuring the reliability of the two new forms a higher coefficient of reliability would have been obtained.

Final scoring of the tests was done by the clerical staff of the Character Education Inquiry according to the technique outlined in the second article in RELIGIOUS EDUCATION. The scores were then weighted by a method devised for this purpose by the Inquiry in order to equalize the values of the different parts of the test. Isolation and classification of the various groups of data and the necessary statistical treatment preliminary to interpretation were done by the writers. With this introduction, we are now ready to take up our original questions in the light of the data secured.

1. *Does the child's knowledge of right and wrong tend to be more like his Sunday-school teacher's, his parents', his adult club leader's, or his child friends'?*

Results of our investigation indicate the different degrees of likeness (r., coefficient of correlation) between the child and leaders of the five major influence groups of which he may be a part as shown by the following table:

TABLE III

Child relationship with:	No. of Cases	Mean Scores	Correlation and Probable Error	
1. Parents	416	69.22	.545	± .023
2. Friends	1020	64.79	.353	± .018
3. Club Leaders	204	70.	.137	± .043
4. Public School Teachers.....	695	80.423	.028	
5. Sunday School Teachers....	205	69.64	.002	

*Of a total of 620 tests returned from either child or parents only fifteen were mailed. A study of the question of child and parent collusion is included later in this article under the paragraph heading, "Is there a Uniform Code?"

Child-Parent Relationship

The figures given in Table III for parents are for situations where either one or both parents took the test. Where both parents' scores were available (276 cases) the average or mean of both parents' scores was correlated with the child's score. Where there was more than one child in the family, each child's score was correlated with this composite parents' score. In addition we felt it necessary to show the relationship of fathers and mothers to each other, mothers with children and fathers with children, so we segregated all cases where both parents took the tests.

TABLE IV

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF 276 CHILD-PARENT CASES

	Mean	S. D.
Mothers	69.359	8.079
Fathers	68.477	8.46
Children	69.263	8.07

The differences in the means and the deviations are so slight that they can be accounted for by chance. This certainly shows remarkable agreement of all persons concerned in the home situation.

Study of the correlations obtained in this home situation reveals some significant results. The relationship of each is indicated by the following correlations:*

TABLE V

Mother-Father	r equals .65 ± .024
Mother-Children	r equals .49 ± .031
Father-Children	r equals .40 ± .034

The Mother-Father correlation indicates a high degree of accord with respect to their knowledge of right and wrong. This accord between parents accounts at least in part for the fairly high relationship between parents and children.

The following partial correlations show interesting relationships:

TABLE VI

Mother and child with father constant, r equals .33
Father and child with mother constant, r equals .12
Father and mother with child constant, r equals .57

It is evident that the mother relationship is considerably closer than the father relationship as regards the moral knowledge of their children. This is only to be expected when the time which each parent spends with the children is considered.

Other influences are discussed later but none compare with the home. In the light of this study it seems increasingly evident that if we wish to raise the standards of moral knowledge of children, the most logical place to center our efforts should be on the home.

*If the members of each pair correlated (father and mother, mother and children, father and children) had thought exactly alike on each question, the r would have been +1.00. If they had taken opposite sides on each question the r would have been -1.00. If they had agreed on half the questions and disagreed on half, the r would have been 0.00. As it is, the r 's show considerable agreement.

Another point arises at this time which will have some bearing on a later discussion. Attention is called to the slight difference between the r of .65 between parents and the partial r of .57 with the child factor constant. This would indicate a very small influence of the children on the moral knowledge of their parents.*

Child-Friend Relationships

A study of this material should be prefaced by an explanation of the way in which it was obtained. On the "Survey Blank" each child was asked to name three or four of his best friends, in the school, either boys or girls or both. Of the total of 1159 children taking the tests in schools, 79 or slightly less than 7% did not name any one as a friend. On the other hand, 145 or slightly over 12% were not named as a good friend by any other child. Considering the range of three school years in one case and four in the others and also that this period is marked ordinarily by the tendency to form friendships, these figures seem to be indicative of considerable individualism or lack of community experience among the school children. A further study of the isolated group as to intelligence, moral knowledge, etc., might reveal significant information regarding their characteristics.

It is to be observed that a great majority of friends were named within their own grade. Such a grouping is primarily probably an age grouping, but that does not necessarily indicate that the friends named do not constitute a genuinely friendly group. It is possibly significant that no child was named as a friend by his comrades more than twelve times and most were named six or seven times. On the other hand, most children did not indicate more than two or three friends as "best" friends, whereas they were told they might name four. It certainly seems as if *within* the age-grade grouping children were deliberately limiting the circle of those whom they would designate as friends. However, the study so far is too superficial to permit of any extensive deduction as to whether or not there is a gang or group influence at work.

Another interesting fact is that boys named girls as friends and *vice versa*, quite freely. These lines are probably not as closely drawn as many would have us believe.

Tabulation of the correlation between a child and his friends was done by correlating the score of each child with the mean score of those he named as friends. We did not consider the relationship between the child and those who named him as friend.

*In criticism it may be noted that the partial r 's obtained between parents and children are lower than r 's between intelligence and moral knowledge. This does not mean that the r 's obtained are not real, but that they are weak. Extraordinarily weak for basing any predictions, save to say, as the text does, that the mother-child relation seems to be greater than the father-child relation, which latter is negligible in the partial, and may easily be accounted for by the father-mother relation.

In reply it may be said that the r 's between intelligence and moral knowledge probably do not invalidate r 's between parents and children. The means indicate that there is very little difference. Probably the difference found is due to the differences in intelligence so that the true correlation in moral knowledge would be higher. If intelligence plays such a large part here it must also do so in the case of the teachers and leaders. Why then do we get such correlations as .35, .137, and .002? After all, we are not saying that the home is *THE* influence. We are only saying that of the home, school, club, friends and church school, the home is the greatest influence. In comparison to these other groups, the case for the parents seems quite clear.

TABLE VII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CHILD AND FRIEND BY GRADES

Grades	No. Cases	Correlation	Means of Children	Means of Friends
9th	181	.246		
8th	237	.208		
7th	328	.228		
6th	157	.054		
5th	168	.148		
Total	1071	.353 \pm .018	64.494	64.797

This table seems to reveal a relationship between the knowledge of right and wrong of a child and that of his or her friends. It may be argued that inasmuch as the children tended to name friends in their own grade more frequently than others, similarity of ages might be responsible for the positive correlation of .35. This might seem to be further borne out by Table VIII, which shows the differences in the means of the various grades. Table IX shows an interesting difference between the scores of girls and boys which might well be a larger factor than age—if boys had named only boys and girls only girls as their friends. A study was made of the seventh graders in comparison only with their *older* friends. This gave us a correlation of .24. Comparison of this with the *r* of .228 between the seventh graders and all their friends indicates that age does not increase the correlation coefficient by more than the probable error.

Granting some influence of such factors as age and sex, it still seems evident that there is a positive relation between a child's knowledge of right and wrong and that of his or her friends. It also appears that this likeness grows as the child grows older, which seems to indicate that friendship counts for more in influencing one's moral knowledge as time goes on, at least up through the ninth grade. This accords with our own experience and our observations of adolescents generally where the mores of a group is observed to dominate the mores of the individual at certain times.

This study of friends should be carried on much further before any broad generalizations are made. Sufficient evidence, however, seems to warrant the suggestion that more natural groupings would tend to more effective results in the field of moral education.

Child-School Teacher Relationship

In arriving at a fair measure of the relationship between children and their day-school teachers a somewhat different technique from the ordinary had to be employed. First we obtained a norm for the different grades by pooling all the scores obtained in our study with those found in two other large schools studied by the Inquiry. These norms are as follows:

TABLE VIII

MORAL KNOWLEDGE GRADE NORMS

	Number	Norm
5th Grade	438	55.98
6th "	420	61.14
7th "	535	64.17
8th "	455	64.05
9th "	333	68.45
Total	2181	62.57

The ninth grade norm is probably not so valuable as the others since it was obtained from but two schools.

Next we correlated the deviation of each child's score from the norm for his grade with his teacher's score. Any deviation from this broadly based norm is a much better indication of the influence of the particular teacher than the actual score would be.

Reference to Table III will show that there is a negligible influence of day-school teachers on the moral knowledge of their children, in spite of the very high mean for teachers of 80.423. The mean is over eleven points above the mean of the parents' scores, but a comparison of the correlations will indicate that the influence of parents is much greater than that of teachers. Evidently other factors than the amount of moral knowledge play an important part in the imparting of ideas of right and wrong to children.

It may be objected that persons who are in positions of authority over children such as are grade-room teachers are by virtue of that fact hardly likely to have much influence on the moral knowledge of their children. To which it may be replied that as part of our study we asked children to name their favorite teachers. 557 pupils named 32 teachers as favorites. The same method was used in working out this correlation as was used in the other pupil-teacher correlations with a resulting coefficient of .055 which, though higher than the other, is negligible. Inspection of the scores reveals the fact that many pupils who rated very poor on their own tests named teachers with very high scores as favorites.

Child-Club Leader Relationships

The deviations from the norms of the children's school scores was correlated with the scores of their club leaders. By this method any amount of influence which the club leader would have over and above the school situation would become apparent. The coefficient was found to be .137, seeming to indicate little, if any, relationship.

In view of the much higher correlation of friends, the question may be raised as to the value of having a club leader imposed upon the group. Ordinarily it is presumed that there is more or less of direct moral instruction being given in such groups. Are we to suppose that this goes for naught or does the coefficient obtained indicate a laxness in the club atmosphere?*

Child-Sunday School Teacher Relationships

Deviations from day school norms were again used in working out this relationship, in order to give every fair chance to show whether or not Sun-

**Criticism.*

Or does the low r suggest some discrepancy between what the club leader teaches and what he answered on the test? The problem of interpretation of likeness or difference from the leader is again raised. The implication of lack of influence because ideas of teachers and pupils are not alike may be questioned. The ideas the pupils have may be the result of what the children get in school, even though the teachers may think differently.

Reply.

Of course we are only giving the relationship between one teacher and her pupils while there are many other factors in the school situation. We have studied two of these however, in the friends and in the favorite teachers. Many of the teachers studied have taught in these schools for several years. To be exact we should have all the teachers which the children have had, but this is impossible. With all these allowances we cannot make out a case for any appreciable influence on the part of the teachers. I have spoken of these results to a number of friends who are interested in this study and they are not a bit surprised. In nearly every case the results seem to corroborate their own experiences.

day-school teachers have a real influence on their children in the matter of knowledge of right and wrong. 205 pupils with 51 teachers took the tests in 21 schools. The coefficient was found to be .002. It is interesting to note that the means of these teachers is nearly the same as that of the parents, being 69.64 for Sunday school teachers and 69.22 for parents.

The Sunday school is supposed to be the bulwark of moral instruction for children; why then do we find no relationship between the knowledge of right and wrong which Sunday school teachers have and which their pupils have? It is probably true that the Sunday school is much less a natural grouping than either clubs or schools. And it is certainly not in any degree the natural grouping which is found in the home. Does this account in part for the low relationship.*

Summary

Results seem to point directly to the home as the outstanding source of the knowledge of right and wrong and that friends come second. There is possibility of a slight influence by club leaders, but we have here no evidence to show that either day-school or Sunday-school teachers are contributing to the moral knowledge of children either directly or indirectly.†

2. *Is there a moral knowledge age, similar to mental age? In other words, will a fifth grade child have as high a code as a seventh grade child, or a ninth grade one?*

3. *Do boys rate the same as girls in moral knowledge?*

Reference is made to Table VIII, which indicates a rising of the norms through five grades, and with 2181 pupils included in the measuring process. Attention is called to the following table, which is compiled from our own investigation:

TABLE IX

COMPARATIVE MEAN SCORES OF BOYS AND GIRLS

Grade	Mean			S. D.		
	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both
9th	66.419	69.299	67.463	7.83	7.26	7.982
8th	66.86	69.5	68.21	8.55	7.44	8.13
7th	64.725	67.677	66.46	9.	7.83	8.37
6th	59.05	63.418	62.063	8.55	8.04	8.58
5th	53.03	57.38	55.88	9.6	8.01	9.57
ALL	62.489	67.257	65.625	10.02	8.638	9.471

It is to be noted that in the means for both boys and girls there is a range of almost thirteen points upward through the grades. How much of this is due to the intelligence factor we are unable to say as we have no intelligence scores. We do know that these tests correlate about .50 with intelligence. The reader is referred to the concluding paragraph of the third article of this series. It is interesting to note that the girls are consistently higher than the boys. At the same time there is a greater range and a larger

**Criticism:* The value of Sunday schools and clubs would be shown better by comparison of scores of those who are regular or old attendants and those who are irregular or new.

†*Criticism:* This does not mean, of course, that they are not so contributing. A universal negative is not established in one study.

measure of variability among boys than among girls. This tends to decrease with age, which is probably accounted for by the greater homogeneity of the older groups.

When we consider the factors of intelligence and also the variation in means in various situations (see discussion of the fourth question, below) such as the home and school, it is rather questionable whether we would find a moral knowledge age if all these factors were partialled out. The large difference in means between the sexes would also argue against such a possibility.

4. *Does a child have a uniform code of morals?*

Where we are dealing with the same child under different situations the factors of intelligence, age and sex are constant, so necessarily the differences we find are due to the situation and not to the child. From the scores of 621 children who took the tests in both home and school we find the following results:

The child-home mean was 67.886 while the child-school mean was 64.391, giving us a difference of 3.495 in favor of the home. This we find to be 7.07 times the S. D. of the difference, and therefore highly significant.*

The reliability between the two forms of the tests used in school and home was .751 while we secured a correlation between home scores and school scores of only .459, which is another indication of real difference between these two situations. The first conclusion might well be that this difference is due to collusion between parents and children, affecting the scores for the better in many cases. The following technique was employed to discover whether this is so or not: (1) Where the children's score is much higher than that of either parent we assume that there has been no collusion. This is a fair assumption on the basis of the small influence noted previously of children on parents. (2) We have also assumed that where the parents' scores are considerably higher than their children's scores there has been no collusion. (3) By this method we have narrowed down our possibility of collusion to some 200 cases in which the child's score was within five points either above or below that of the parents' score. (4) A random sampling of one out of every five of these cases of most probable collusion was selected which gave us forty-two cases for item to item comparison. Since three of the four tests were multiple choice tests, we reasoned that collusion would be most evident in identical errors. Careful comparison of item for item of each of the ninety-two situations of the test revealed 700 identical errors to 902 non-identical errors. The laws of chance alone would yield 800 identical and 800 non-identical errors which leads us to believe that there was practically no evidence of collusion even in these most likely cases. In addition, only one of the forty-two sample cases showed all the errors identical.

With the above evidence before us we have come to the conclusion that the difference between the home and the school is due primarily to the situation. In other words, a child naturally responds differently in his answers to what is right and wrong at home from the way he does at school.

*Cf. the procedure in Garrett, H. C., *Statistics in Psychology and Education*, pp. 128 ff. or any standard text in statistical methods.

There seem to be different codes for the different situations, such as a home code, a school code, a Sunday school code, a club code. Every teacher and every parent have experienced how differently children act in different situations, so our data seem to bear out what common sense has told us many times.

Table X gives further evidence of such codes:

TABLE X

No. Cases	Institution	Mean	vs. Institution	Mean	Correlation
621	Home	67.886	School	64.391	.4599
276	Sunday school	66.91	School	66.957	.454
157	Home	68.89	Club	62.816	.433
183	Home	68.45	S.S.	65.532	.398
48	Club	65.15	S.S.	64.58	.351
104	Club	62.387	School	65.86	.349

From this table it is evident that the scores on tests taken in different situations do not correlate as highly as the reliability coefficients of these tests would lead one to anticipate if there were no factors in the situations tending to call out differentiated responses. The evidence seems to indicate that there is not the large amount or degree of transfer from one situation to another which we have generally expected.

Moral knowledge does not seem to be a fixed general factor which appears identically in all the various situations in which a person finds himself. It seems rather to be more specific, in pre- and early adolescent children anyway. The child is influenced more by the group code than by an individual code.* This fact is tremendously significant for the religious and moral educator.

We cannot be content with giving moral or religious instruction in the church (even though it should be made effective with the hope that this will mold the child's character so as to carry over into all of his other life situations). Rather must we get into every situation to build up specific moral concepts. This involves the organization of all of society on a moral and religious educational basis which when consummated would approximate what Jesus called "The Kingdom of God."

In Conclusion

In summing up the results of the study, the evidence seems to justify us in suggesting certain more or less tentative conclusions:

1. Though not extremely high, the home reveals by far the highest relationship between children's knowledge of right and wrong and that of major influence groups, *viz.*, parents, friends, club leaders, public school teachers and Sunday school teachers, the degree of relationship ranging from an *r* of .545 between children and parents to an *r* of .002 between children and Sunday-school teachers. The means of the scores of the vari-

**Criticism:* What is the evidence for this conclusion? The child's code might be highly individual and yet there might be factors in the various situations which would lead him to vary it enough in different directions to account for the correlations secured.

Reply: It seems to me that we have no evidence that the child's code is highly individual. If so, why does it not carry over into the different situations?

ous groups seem to have little to do with the relationship. Public school teachers have a mean score of 80.42 as compared with the pupils' mean score of 62.57, with an r between them of only .03; while friends have a mean of 64.79 as compared with 64.49, and an r between friends of .35.

The two more natural groups of home and friends are the most significant though neither is high enough to warrant being called the predominant influence.

Within the home situation the mother's influence is considerably greater than that of the father while the children seem to influence the parent-child relationship very little.

The evidence from this study seems to suggest that in the field of moral knowledge greater results will be obtained by emphasis on education in the home and amongst friends than in the other groups. Undoubtedly other factors exist that influence children in this regard which need to be discovered before we can determine what the most significant influences really are. The lack of relationship between leader and led in the formal groups where moral teaching is attempted directly, especially in the club and Sunday school, indicates that the leader's ideas at least are not getting across to the children.

2. There seems to be little evidence to lead us to believe that there is a Moral Knowledge Age corresponding to the Mental Age of children. The differences noted may well be due to the mental ages of the children. The uniform difference between girls and boys in favor of the former is rather interesting. It may or may not be due to the generally closer confinement of girls to the home, especially to the mother whose influence we have seen is greater than that of the father.

If the inference is correct that the daughters have a higher score than the sons because they spend more time at home and are in more intimate contact with its adult members, then the reason for the greater influence of the home as compared with other agencies may be accounted for by the fact that the home maintains more extensive and intimate contact with both boys and girls than do schools, clubs and Sunday schools.

3. The wide differences in means and the relatively low correlations between the scores of the same children in the different situations indicate quite clearly that a child does not have a uniform generalized code of morals but varies according to the situations in which he finds himself. In other words, he has a Home code, a School code, a Sunday-school code, etc., or else adapts a code fundamentally his own to meet the more insistent demands of the occasion. Knowledge of right and wrong is a specific matter to be applied to specific situations which the child encounters in his daily living. Perchance this lack of a fixed general code is due to the secularized life with which we surround our children. We may have to get more of a moral unity in the individual child. Suffice it to say, the task of the moral and religious educator is concerned with the complete life of the child and not with a portion set aside for so-called religious instruction.

* * *

The writers have considered the problem from many different approaches and have confronted many facts which could not of necessity be included in an article of this length. The study is rather more suggestive of future possibilities of research than burdened with accomplished findings. All pertinent criticisms and suggestions which will give more light on a most complex and important problem in the field of religious education will be most welcome.

FIFTH ARTICLE

THE RELATION OF STANDARDS TO BEHAVIOR IN INDIVIDUALS

Results previously reported have led us to feel that the scores on the so-called Moral Knowledge Tests represent for the most part the genuine opinion of the persons taking the test. In the case of children these genuine opinions seem to agree largely with the adult standards of the communities in which the children live and in particular are influenced by the standards of the parents rather than by the standards of teachers and leaders outside the home.

One of the most important of the problems listed in our third article concerns the relation between the scores on these tests of moral opinion and the scores on the tests used by the Inquiry for measuring behavior tendencies of ethical significance. We are prepared now to report the facts of this relation in some detail with regard to various forms of deceptive behavior, and more briefly with regard to self-denying helpful behavior.

In our second article we reported a correlation of—.385 between the sum of seven moral knowledge tests and a type of deception which consisted of copying answers from an answer sheet while taking a test. This figure was based on data obtained from a mid western city school system and from one school in New York. In our discussion we gave the evidence for concluding that this correlation was not altogether due to the common factor of intelligence, and that it seemed rather high in view of the fact that the conduct measured was highly specific and the moral knowledge measured was quite general.* Since that article was written many other groups have been measured with the revised moral knowledge tests and with a variety of deceptive tests, affording us a better foundation for the study of the relation between standards and conduct.

For convenience of reference we will use the following notations as symbols for the different behaviors studied:

- A. Copying from an answer sheet or dictionary or getting help from someone.
- B. Adding to one's work after time is called.
- C. Opening the eyes to guide one's pencil when eyes are supposed to be shut.
- D. Faking the solution of a puzzle test.
- E. Faking a score in a physical ability contest, and so cheating one's school mates.
- F. Cheating in parlor games.
- G. Stealing money from a puzzle used in a test or from a game at a party.
- H. Total number of instances of deception in Behaviors A to G.
- I. Helpful behavior.

It is not necessary to give in detail the techniques for measuring these types of conduct. Suffice it to say that each was tested objectively by performance tests the making of which has constituted one large section of the work of the Inquiry. The moral knowledge tests used were in the form discussed in the third article of this series.

Table I summarizes the facts in terms of total moral knowledge scores and the scores on the various types of conduct tests.

School A consists of cases from a suburban school system. School

*The sum of the seven moral knowledge tests, with intelligence constant, yielded a partial r of—.157 with cheating. But the sum of six (omitting the Cause-Effect test) yielded a partial r with cheating of —.402 (intelligence constant).

B consists of the residents of an institution for homeless children. School C is a private school in New York.

The column headed N gives the number of cases. The mean moral knowledge score is given in column two, and the standard deviation of these scores in column three. The raw r reported is between the type of cheating referred to in each section of the table—A, B, C, etc.—and a total moral knowledge score. These r's are corrected in the next column for errors inherent in the conduct test material and in some cases (the starred figures) for restricted range. The next column gives the r between mental age and cheating, which is needed for the partial. The column headed "Partial r with M.A. constant" gives the correlation between moral knowledge and each type of conduct when intelligence is kept constant.* It represents what we would get if the children were of the same mental age. Here we see that the correlations in the other column are due largely to the mental age factor which correlates positively with moral knowledge and negatively with deception, for when mental age is kept constant the r's drop to nearly zero in all cases.†

If we take the figures of Table I at their face value we shall have to conclude that general moral knowledge as measured by the tests described, and the specific behaviors classified as deception are only slightly related, there being a barely detectable tendency for higher moral knowledge scores to be associated with higher honesty (lower dishonesty) scores. As this conclusion tends to contradict our common sense judgment in the matter, it would be well to examine our data more closely.

In the first place the moral knowledge score used was an actual total score with the elements so weighted as to equalize the tests in length, correlation with intelligence, correlation with conduct, and correlation with the sum of all.

The partials reported in the second article were based on predicted totals weighted only for length of test. What effect the method of weighting had upon the correlations with intelligence and conduct obtained for this article is not known and it has not seemed worthwhile to find out inasmuch as the present total moral knowledge score seems to be a more adequate measure of the true state of affairs than the results secured previously with our preliminary tests. That is, we are probably nearer the truth in this article than in our second article.

TABLE I
MORAL KNOWLEDGE AND CONDUCT
Behavior A. Copying from a Key.

	N	Mean M. K.	S. D. M. K.	Raw r	Corrected r	r with M. A.	Partial r M. A. constant
School A	290	121	20.7	—,252	—,305		
School B	200	120	16.0	—,313	—,381*		
School C	194	128	16.2	—,280	—,352*		
Average					—,346	—,400	—,158

*The same r for moral knowledge and intelligence, .566, is used for each partial and represents the actual correlation between mental age and the total moral knowledge scores of an unselected group.

†Behavior A is the same as the one referred to in the second article. The coefficients are closely similar to the —,385 quoted above. See footnote on page 52.

Behavior A. Misuse of Dictionary at Home.

School A	270	117	18.5	—,223	—,236		
School C	200	130	13.6	—,178	—,286		
Average					—,261	—,38	—,061

Behavior B. Adding on Answers.

School A	632	109	23.3	—,076	—,085		
School B	200	120	16.4	+ ,029	+ ,032		
School C	167	126	15.9	+ ,106	+ ,112		
Average					+ ,020	+ ,07	—,023

Behavior C. Peeping.

School B	210	120	16.0	—,244	—,297*	—,226	—,210
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Behavior D. Faking Puzzles.

School B	150	116	16.0	+ ,0164	+ ,020	+ ,062	—,023
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Behavior E. Faking Contests.

School A	88	118	20.0	—,039	—,045		
School B	207	120	16.5	—,014	—,020		
Average					—,032	+ ,052	—,075

Behavior F. Cheating at Parties.

School B	200	120	16.0	—,142	—,173*		
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Behavior G. Theft of Money.

School B	216	120	16.0	—,210	—,256*		
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Behavior H. Total C's.

School A C's	285	117	20	—,103			
School B C, T.	210	120	16	—,263			
School C C's	191	126	16	—,002			
				—,123			

Behavior I. Helpfulness.

School A	484	117	24.2	—,002			
School B	198	120	16.8	+ ,283			
School C	166	129	16.0	+ ,218			

In the second place the moral knowledge tests were scored from the standpoint of the highest social standards of adults, as was indicated in the first article. A high score represents knowledge of this ideal adult code. It does not necessarily mean that the child's own code is like the adults'. And since in practicing deception the child has no idea that any adult is aware of what is going on he naturally feels no need of making his behavior conform to the adult code. If this is the psychology of the situation,† then we could not expect very high negative correlations between scores on the moral knowledge tests and the deception scores, but we would expect to find evidence of a closer relation between the child's own code and his behavior than between his knowledge of the adult code and his behavior.

We attempted, therefore, a method of scoring which would show

*Corrected for restricted range.

†If this interpretation is correct, then the low correlations between moral knowledge scores and helpful behavior indicate that the child's knowledge of the ideal adult code is relatively independent of his own code, for there is no doubt of his being aware of what the approved helpful behavior is and that his altruistic acts are known to others.

the child's likeness to other children rather than his likeness to the adult code. We used as a key the conventional or majority answers of the children's own papers. An item was called right when it corresponded to the answers of more than half the children. This did not give us a true children's code, of course, but the resulting scores measure more nearly the approximation to the conventional than the scores used before.

We first correlated the new conventional scores and the idealistic scores with the following results for Scale A.

	r
Test 1364
Test 2090
Test 3733
Test 4328
Total594

These r's suggest that the new conventional scores might give different results from the former scores when correlated with deception. For one group we had over twenty cheating and stealing tests. Combining the results of all these into one deception score and correlating with the conventional moral knowledge scores we get the following for Scale A:

	r
Test 1015
Test 2077
Test 3	-.058
Test 4115
Total049

Exactly the same tests scored by the former ideal key yield these r's:

Test 1	-.131
Test 2	-.039
Test 3	-.041
Test 4	-.039

The conventional scores are low but interestingly enough they change mostly from negative to positive, corroborating our feeling that we were getting nearer to the child's code score by the conventional scoring procedure.

The use of a conventional key raises the mean and shortens the range of effective differentiation on every test. It is obvious that an element which all answer in the same way will not differentiate. Our low correlations are partly due to this limitation in our second scoring method. Apparently we shall have to study the tests item by item to find the crucial elements.

First we will report on items referring specifically to cheating. Tables II to IV show how the cheaters and non-cheaters answered these items as well as a few others involving other types of behavior.

In the case of each table the elements referred to are printed in full. The first column for each element gives the number of times the individuals cheated on a test of the Behavior A variety, in which cheating consisted in copying answers from a key or dictionary. The next columns give the number of individuals who chose the answer given at the top of the column. The columns headed N show the number of cases used for this particular study. In Table II, for example, we find that on item No. 7 we have 341 cases of whom 126 did not cheat at all, 135 cheated once, 64 twice, etc. Of the 126 honest ones, one gave the answer labelled a), seven b), twenty-five c), twelve d), and eighty-one e). The row marked Ave. gives the average cheating score for each column, that is, for the pupils who gave the several possible answers. Those who answered a) have a mean cheating score of 1.5 times per pupil, whereas those who answered c) have a mean cheating score of .8 times per pupil. The bottom row gives the percentage of cheaters who gave the answer indicated at the top of the respective columns. Thus of those who said a), 91% cheated; of those who said b), 61% cheated, etc.

The elements reported on in Table II are taken from the original form of the Comprehensions Test and are as follows:

7. If another pupil wants to copy your work and hand it in:
 - a. Let him do it and say nothing about it.
 - b. Let him do it but tell the teacher.
 - c. Don't let him do it and say nothing.
 - d. Don't let him do it and tell the teacher he wanted to.
 - e. Don't let him and tell him that you don't approve of cheating.
12. If you make a mistake and put a nickel for a penny in the slot:
 - a. Put in four slugs to even it up.
 - b. Call up the company and tell them about it.
 - c. Smash the thing and get your nickel.
 - d. Report it to the police.
 - e. Do nothing.
19. If the storekeeper gives you back too much change:
 - a. Tell him he made a mistake.
 - b. Go out and say nothing about it—spend the money for candy.
 - c. Keep the money and give it to the Christmas Fund.
 - d. Tell your mother about how clever you were.
24. If you find that someone has passed you a coin that is not real money but looks like it at first glance:
 - a. Pass it on to someone else.
 - b. Throw it away—destroy it.
 - c. Try to find the person and give it back to him.
 - d. Keep it as a souvenir.
 - e. Ask an older person what to do with it.
26. If someone asks your opinion about a person whom you don't know very well:
 - a. Say he is all right.
 - b. Say you don't know him.
 - c. Say you think he is not a very good person.
 - d. Say, "Why do you ask me such a question?"
27. If your teacher asks you a question and you don't know the answer:
 - a. Say, "I don't know."
 - b. Try to make her think you know but can't express it.
 - c. Guess at the answer.
 - d. Say you think it is a foolish question.

TABLE II

CORRESPONDENCE OF COMPREHENSION AND CONDUCT

Element 7							Element 19				
C's	a	b	c	d	e	N	a	b	c	d	N
0	1	7	25	12	81	126	119	1	4	2	
1	4	6	14	5	106	135	128	1	5	1	
2	6	4	7	5	42	64	61	1	1	1	
3		1	3	3	8	15	14			1	
4					1	1					
T	11	18	49	25	238	341	322	3	10	5	340
Ave.	1.5	1.0	0.8	1.0	.9	.9	.9	1.0	.7	1.2	
% C	91	61	49	49	66	63	63	67	60	60	

Element 12						Element 26					
C's	a	b	c	d	e	N	a	b	c	d	N
0	7	52		1	66		15	78	3	30	
1	7	53	3	2	70		17	67	1	50	
2	10	22	2		30		9	30	4	20	
3	2	7		1	5		3	7		5	
4								1			
T	26	134	5	4	171	340	44	183	8	105	340
Ave.	1.3	.9	1.4	1.3	.8		1.0	.8	1.1	1.0	
% C	73	61	100	75	61		66	57	63	71	

Element 24						Element 27					
C's	a	b	c	d	e	N	a	b	c	d	N
0	3	45	29	21	28		114	3	9		
1	2	53	32	18	30		130	2	2		
2	2	22	21	11	8		60	2	2		
3		4	4	5	2		15				
4			1				1				
T	7	124	87	55	68	341	320	7	13	0	340
Ave.	.9	.9	1.0	1.0	.8		.9	.9	.5		
% C	57	64	67	62	59		64	57	31		

The elements reported on in Table III are taken from the original form of the Provocations Test. The subject is to indicate whether the act described is right (R), excusable (Ex), or wrong (Wr).

1. Helen noticed that nearly everyone in the class was cheating on a test, so she cheated too.....R Ex Wr
10. There was a contest among the classes for high grades. John cheated on the test in order to help his class win.....R Ex Wr
15. The neighbors had been kept awake at night by two cats fighting. So Fred set his bull dog on them.....R Ex Wr
21. When Dick pointed his father's revolver at Joe in fun, Joe said, "Don't you know better than that you ——— fool?".....R Ex Wr
23. Helen knew that cucumber salad would make her sick but she ate some so as not to offend the hostess.....R Ex Wr

TABLE III

CORRESPONDENCE OF IMAGINED PROVOCATION AND CONDUCT

Element 1					Element 10				Element 15			
C's	R	Ex	Wr	N	R	Ex	Wr	N	R	Ex	Wr	N
0	5	8	87	100	1	15	83	99	34	30	30	94
1	1	10	118	129	4	12	113	129	56	30	45	131
2	3	4	83	90	4	13	74	91	39	30	22	91
3	1	3	29	33	4	4	25	33	10	9	11	30
4		1	5	6	1	1	4	6	3	2	1	6
T	10	26	322	358	14	45	299	358	142	101	109	352
Ave.	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	2.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2
% C	50	69	73	72	93	67	72	72	76	70	72	73

0	Element 21				Element 23			
	33	23	34	90	29	39	24	92
1	47	36	51	134	33	51	47	131
2	43	17	30	90	21	40	30	91
3	12	9	9	30	3	13	14	30
4	2	1	2	5	2		3	5
T	137	86	126	349	88	143	118	349
Ave.	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.2
% C	76	73	73	74	67	73	80	74

The elements reported in Table IV are taken from the original Duties Test and are as follows:

8. To bet on your home team.....True ? False
36. To stick with your gang even when they are wrong.....True ? False
69. To accept every decision of the umpire without question....True ? False
74. To pretend you understand a thing when you do not.....True ? False

TABLE IV

CORRESPONDENCE OF SENSE OF DUTY AND CONDUCT

C's	Element 8				Element 36				Element 69				Element 74			
	+	—	?	N	+	—	?	N	+	—	?	N	+	—	?	N
0	77	64	42	183	39	110	31	180	123	21	31	175	8	166	7	181
1	93	59	21	173	55	105	14	174	113	24	25	162	7	150	10	167
2	43	29	14	86	26	51	6	83	50	14	13	77	11	61	6	78
3	20	11	8	39	11	22	6	39	22	7	4	33	5	28	6	39
4	5	1	2	8	3	3	2	8	4	1	3	8	3	4	1	8
T	238	164	87	489	134	291	59	484	312	67	76	455	34	409	30	473
Ave.	1.1	.9	.9	1.0	1.1	1.0	.9	1.0	.9	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.6	.9	1.5	1.0
% C	68	61	52	63	71	62	47	63	61	69	59	62	76	59	77	62

Looking back over Tables II to IV we find the following conspicuous differences.

Comprehensions, Element 7. 91% of those who say it is all right to let another pupil copy your work and hand it in as his own actually cheated themselves.

Comprehensions, Element 12. 100% of those preferring to smash the slot machine to recover their lost nickel actually cheated on a test.

Provocations, Element 10. 93% of those who thought it right for John to cheat in order to help his class win actually cheated themselves.

It is noteworthy that these high agreements among the cheaters are in regard to cheating in two cases, to property in the third and not in any instance to other types of behavior. This is somewhat surprising, since one would not expect a cheater to wear his heart on his sleeve. The way he gives himself away in these particular instances may afford suggestions as to how to build a test that will contain a large number of elements having this attraction for the cheater.

Meanwhile, it may be found that other elements already used may distinguish between the honest and the dishonest subjects. A complete analysis of six hundred elements for all the cases available was hardly justified in view of the improbability of success. So we selected the twenty-five most deceptive individuals from a group that had over twenty tests of deception and twenty-five cases from another group who did not cheat on any one of ten tests. The first group cheated on the average three out of every four chances. All these children had Scale A, Form 2 of the Moral Knowledge Tests. We ran through the first four tests—Causes, Duties, Comprehensions and Provocations—and tabulated the way the honest and dishonest groups answered each ele-

ment. The items of Table V showed significant* differences between the two groups. The score reported is the score chosen by the honest group, the other group choosing some other answer. Those marked "2" are weighted double because of the extreme difference between the groups. Items scored as shown in this table give the honest a high score and the dishonest a low score.

TABLE V

HONEST RESPONSES ON DISTINGUISHING ELEMENTS—SCALE A

Causes		Duties		Provocations	
Item	Score	3	— or s	6	wr or ex
9	—	13	+ "2"	7	wr or ex
13	—	15	— or s	8	ex "2"
17	—	17	s	12	ex "2"
18	—	25	— or s	13	wr or ex
20	—	Comprehensions		14	wr or ex
21	—"2"	3	b	15	wr or ex
23	—"2"	9	a		
26	—"2"				
27	—				
29	—"2"				
34	—				
35	—				

Using Table V as a key we scored the papers of the two groups, using only the items listed. Table VI shows the results:

TABLE VI

DISTRIBUTION OF MORAL KNOWLEDGE SCORES (SCALE A) OF HONEST AND DISHONEST GROUPS

Score	Honest	Dishonest
0		
2		
4		2
6		3
8		4
10		4
12		5
14	1	4
16	2	0
18		0
20	4	3
22	2	
24	4	
26	7	
28	3	
30	1	
32	1	
	—	—
	25	25

*Not statistically determined. The largest differences were used.

This seemed to warrant further study, so we did the same thing for Scale B, Form 2, using another group of most honest cases, but the same group of dishonest cases. The honest scoring of the most differentiating elements was as follows:

TABLE VII

HONEST RESPONSES ON DISTINGUISHING TEST ELEMENTS—SCALE B

Applications		Recognitions		Principles		Vocabulary	
Item	Score	Item	Score	Item	Score	Item	Score
2	1 or 3	3	J	3	—	7	1
3	4 or 5	5	C	4	—	10	1
7	5	12	C	6	+	11	1
8	4 or 5	13	C or X	7	—	12	3
9	3 or 4	14	X			15	1
		16	J or X			18	1
		18	C			19	3
		22	C			20	3
		24	C			25	1
		26	C			26	3
						27	1
						29	2
						32	1
						33	3
						34	1
						36	1
						37	4

When scored as in Table VII the two groups of papers yield the following distributions:

TABLE VIII

DISTRIBUTION OF MORAL KNOWLEDGE SCORES (SCALE B) OF HONEST AND DISHONEST GROUPS

Score	Honest	Dishonest
0		
2		
4		
6		1
8		1
10		2
12		2
14		
16		5
18	1	2
20	1	6
22	3	3
24	6	1
26	3	1
28	4	
30	3	1
32	3	
34	1	

Scale B did not succeed as well as Scale A in distinguishing the two groups, but the difference is still marked. But we may still be "stacking the deck," so to speak, by this method of selection. The same questions might not distinguish between other groups. The apparent differences in the separate items may be chance differences in each case, so that by combining a lot of such chance differences we may have built up a large total difference peculiar to the groups selected. When the items are not selected because of their capacity to distinguish groups, but are chosen at random, the chance differences between groups tend to be neutralized. This can be tested by taking a fresh population of honest and dishonest cases and using the same items as before.

We did this by selecting the most honest twenty-five and the most dishonest twenty-five from a population of 500. The difference in this case is much less significant, being only 2.7 times its standard error, whereas it should be three times its standard error to be beyond the range of chance. The difference between the cheating means of these groups on Behavior B alone was twelve times its S. E.

This method seems to be unavailable for discovering the relation of moral knowledge to conduct. But having gone so far we thought we might as well see what else the differences among these several populations might reveal. Apparently the moral knowledge scores are due to other factors than those which determine the behavior scores.

First it should be noted that the honest group in Table VI is from a private school of unusually fine moral tone. The deception group in the same table is from an institution for children from broken homes.

The second group of honest cases used for comparison with these institutional cases consisted of about half the same children as before and half other children from the same school. The groups from the population of 500 used as a check and referred to in the second paragraph preceding, are from a suburban community and both the honest and dishonest groups are from the same schools so that the general background is relatively homogeneous. Let us call these groups HP1, HP2, DI, HS, DS, respectively; HP1 and 2 the most honest private school

TABLE IX

DIFFERENCES (LEFT) BETWEEN HONEST AND DISHONEST GROUP MEANS AND
THESE DIFFERENCES DIVIDED BY THEIR STANDARD ERRORS (RIGHT)

		HP1	HP2	DI	HS	DS
HP1	Moral Knowledge			10.3	4.4	7.7
	Deception		3.7	12.3	4.9	15.1
HP2	Moral Knowledge			8.2		
	Deception	+ 18.6		10.4		
DI	Moral Knowledge	+ 12.8	+ 11.3		5.1	2.5
	Deception	+145.9	+127.3		10.6	2.9
HS	Moral Knowledge	+ 5.9		-6.9		2.7
	Deception	+ 19.7		-125.6		12.4
DS	Moral Knowledge	+ 9.6		-3.2	+3.7	
	Deception	+108.2		-38.1	+88.0	

children, DI, the twenty-five most deceptive institutional children, HS and DS the twenty-five most honest and twenty-five most dishonest suburban children. Table IX displays some interesting comparisons among these groups.

Remembering that any difference three or more times its S.E. (right side of table) is beyond the range of chance, let us examine this table. The biggest differences are between the groups on which the technique was built, HP1, HP2 and DI, the test questions being selected because they differentiated these groups, the private school most honest and the institutional most dishonest. The next largest differences occur in the two instances in which **one** of these original groups is compared with a fresh group, viz., HP1 and DS (private honest and suburban dishonest) and DI and HS (institutional dishonest and suburban honest). When entirely fresh populations are used for the honest and dishonest groups (HS and DS), the moral knowledge difference is not quite beyond the limits of chance although the deception difference is considerable. Comparison of the suburban and institutional dishonest groups, DI and DS, shows that there is a slight difference in favor of the suburban group on both moral knowledge and deception tests. Comparison of the private school **honest** and suburban **honest** groups (HP1 and HS), shows a curious and significant difference in **both** moral knowledge and deception. These moral knowledge scores, it must be remembered, are based on only twenty-six elements. The private school mean (honest groups) is 24.8 as against 18.8 for the suburban honest groups, a difference 4.4 times its standard error. This is a more significant difference than the difference between the moral knowledge elements of the two suburban groups. When we get away from the original two groups by means of which the elements were chosen, their power to distinguish disappears. This is particularly conspicuous when it is noted that these two suburban groups differ in deception by twelve times the S.E. of the difference.

We must conclude, therefore, that while the responses on the selected elements are much the same for two dishonest groups, they differ so between two honest groups as to eliminate their discriminative capacity. But the comparability of the differences between the HP1 and HS group in moral knowledge (4.4) and deception (4.9) and between the DS and DI group in moral knowledge (2.5) and deception (2.9) as well as the relations between HP1 and DS, and HS and DI (see Table IX), suggest, if they do not demonstrate, a relation of some kind between the moral knowledge responses and conduct. But the great difference in answers between the two honest groups, HP1 and HS, suggests also that the relation is slight and that other factors such as the general cultural differences often found between distinct social groups such as public and private schools, and institutions, are more significant in determining correlations between knowledge and conduct than are any logical relations in the minds of individuals.

The facts just discussed are graphically portrayed in the accompanying chart, from which it will be seen that the various groups occupy the same relative position in both moral knowledge and deception.

MORAL KNOWLEDGE		DECEPTION	
Means		Means	
HP1	25	10	HP1
		31	HS
HS	19		
DS	15	118	DS
DI	12	156	DI

If, as has just been suggested, the group as a unit should exhibit higher correlations between such factors as knowledge and conduct than does the individual as a unit, many interesting problems of interpretation would be raised. It has seemed worthwhile, therefore, to make an intensive study of the relation between moral knowledge and conduct of social groups each of which is relatively homogeneous. The conclusions of this study will be reported in the next article.

SIXTH ARTICLE

GROUP STANDARDS AND GROUP CONDUCT

The previous paper in this series reported two conclusions and two provocative suggestions covering the extent to which standards and conduct are psychologically related in the behavior of individuals. The scores on our moral knowledge tests, purporting to measure general level of comprehension of ideal conduct, proved to have very little in common with either deceptive or altruistic behavior. The way in which certain test items were answered by honest as contrasted with dishonest children seemed to offer a fruitful lead regarding the way to build a test of moral opinion which might show a better correlation with conduct. We were not able, however, to select from our own tests a group of items which would consistently discriminate between honest and dishonest children. Finally, we drew attention to the fact that close correspondences existed between the most honest sections and the most dishonest sections of certain school populations with respect to their mean differences in both moral knowledge and deception.

From Table IX of the last article it appears that Honest Group HP1 differs from Honest Group HS in the same amount in both moral knowledge and deception; Dishonest Group DI differs from Honest Group HP1 84 per cent as much in knowledge as in conduct and from Honest Group HP2 78 per cent as much in knowledge as in conduct. Dishonest Group DS differs similarly from Honest Group HP1 in about the same ratio as Dishonest Group DS differs from Honest Group HS.

The means of four of these groups were charted on the last page of the previous article so as to indicate the correlation.

All this suggests a group similarity in behavior on moral knowledge tests and deception tests which we have thought worth investigating.

In reporting the similarity of groups in moral knowledge and conduct we are not engaging in controversy over the psychological nature of a group. We shall show, however, that when one relatively homogeneous group is compared with another, differences in both knowledge and conduct are found which cannot be accounted for by chance or by differences in intelligence and which also correlate more highly than do knowledge and conduct in individuals. These facts bear out the suggestion that there is a community of code and conduct in homogeneous groups which is not a function of individual integration.

In this paper two types of dishonest tests and a record of helpful acts are used for the conduct scores, and eight different moral knowledge tests, wherever these could be matched, case for case. The classroom group is always the unit used. Table I shows the correlations between the available moral knowledge test scores and a type of dishonesty called Behavior C, which consists in making illegitimate use of an answer sheet while taking a test or grading one's own paper.

There were three such tests involving arithmetic problems, completion problems, and information problems. These three are combined in a single classroom or school deception score in Table I. The scores all represent *amounts* of deception. Classrooms doubtless differ in code in this matter as well as in conduct, but these codes are not qualitatively revealed in the moral knowledge scores, which indicate, rather, a kind of level of comprehension as to what is expected of children. If a genuine code were available the correlations would presumably run much higher.

TABLE I

INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MORAL KNOWLEDGE AND
DECEPTIVE BEHAVIOR C

	<i>Ind. r's</i>		<i>Group r's</i>		5 N	6 Groups	7 Group r Partial Intelligence constant
	1 Raw	2 Corr.	3 r.	4 P.E.			
M.K Tests							
A1 Causes	-.04	-.05	+.28	.12	435	13	
A2 Duties	-.25	-.32	-.35	.09	450	15	
A3 Comprehensions	-.18	-.24	-.80*	.04	457	16	-.73
A4 Provocations	-.15	-.20	-.53*	.09	307	13	-.20
B2 Recognitions	-.13	-.17	-.64*	.06	766	23	-.83
B3 Principles	-.26	-.36	-.49	.09	302	8	
B4 Applications	-.40	-.52	-.49	.09	243	9	
B5 Vocabulary	-.15	-.18	-.51*	.08	540	18	-.05

The columns of Tables I, II and III have the following meanings: At the left are the separate moral knowledge tests, referred to by name, scale and number. Col. 1 gives the *r*'s between individual moral knowledge and deception scores. Col. 2 gives these *r*'s corrected for chance errors. Col. 3 gives the *r*'s between the classroom means in moral knowledge and deception. Col. 4 gives the P.E.'s of Col. 3. Col. 5 is the number of cases in each population. Col. 6 gives the number of classroom groups. Col. 7 shows the partial *r*'s between moral knowledge and deception group means with intelligence held constant.

Table II presents the same facts for Behavior A—a type of dishonesty which consists in adding on more scores in a speed test when one is supposed to be correcting his paper. There were six such opportunities in the test.

TABLE II

INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MORAL KNOWLEDGE†
AND DECEPTIVE BEHAVIOR A

	<i>Ind. r's</i>		<i>Group r's</i>		5 N	6 Groups
	1 Raw	2 Corr.	3 r	4 P.E.		
A1	-.14	-.22	+.265	.12	780	30
A2	-.18	-.30	-.367	.12	710	28
A3	-.08	-.13	-.087	.13	780	30
A4	-.09	-.13	-.435	.09	780	30
B2	+.03	+.04	-.177	.13	458	17
B3	-.06	-.11	+.382	.12	458	17
B4	-.09	-.14	-.443*	.10	419	14
B5	-.06	-.07	-.338	.12	528	19

The columns of Table II have the same meanings as those of Table I.

Table III gives the correlations for general helpful behavior called Behavior H. The helpfulness scores are ratios based on teachers' estimates of the amount of co-operation each child gave to each of several class and school service projects, and the number of such projects.

TABLE III

INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MORAL KNOWLEDGE†
AND BEHAVIOR H

	<i>Ind. r's</i>	<i>Group r's</i>		5 N	6 Groups	7 Partial (int. constant)
	1 Raw	3 r	4 P.E.			
A1	+.24	.714*	.06	387	13	+.65
A2	+.26	.685*	.06	359	12	+.63
A3	+.12	.362	.10	386	13	
A4	+.15	.404	.10	400	13	
B2	+.17	.363	.10	221	9	
B3	+.24	.730*	.05	222	9	+.75
B4	+.18	.758*	.05	152	6	+.73
B5	+.45	.650	.07	258	10	

The columns of Table III have the same meaning as those of Tables I and II. The *r*'s of Col. 1 could not be corrected for attenuation since the reliability of the helpfulness scores is not known.

†The moral knowledge scores in Tables II and III are from a revised form of those previously used which in each case is less than half the length of the original.

The first thing to be noticed in these tables is the fact that the group r 's of Column 3 are, with one exception, higher than the individual r 's of Column 1, and almost always higher than these r 's even when they are corrected for attenuation in Column 2. Column 1 gives the fairer comparison since in groups made up by a random selection of cases $r_{m_1m_2} = r_{12}$ as will be pointed out in a moment. In many cases the group r 's exceed the individual r 's in the ratio of from 4 to 1 to 7 to 1. Those that are significantly greater than the individual r 's are starred(*).

Table I shows that in the case of Behavior C at least four of the moral knowledge tests correlate significantly higher in the case of the group means than in the case of the individual scores. Behavior A, however, shows only one single significant difference, although in each case the group r 's are larger than the individual r 's. Four of the moral knowledge tests show significantly different r 's between the individual and group r 's for helpful behavior (Table III), and most of the r 's run higher than for deception. The four that are starred for helpfulness are precisely the four that are not starred for the deception scores of Behavior C in Table I.

These figures now set our problems for us: Classroom groups exhibit a genuine association of scores on certain moral knowledge tests and certain conduct tests which is not accounted for by the association of these same facts in the individuals who make up these groups. Individuals who rate high in moral knowledge do not necessarily rate high in conduct. In fact the relation between the two is nearly negligible. But *groups* that rate high in moral knowledge do also rate high in conduct, under certain conditions. That a relation of this sort between individual r 's and group r 's is not a chance result has been shown by Pearson, who demonstrated that if a series of groups are random samples of the entire population, the r 's between the means of the groups will be the same as the r 's based on individual scores.*

In our case, the groups are obviously not selected at random so far as age is concerned since they are ordinary grade groups, the members of which have been together for the most part for some time. It may be that the mere mechanical age and intelligence differentiation of such grade groups would account for the likeness found in knowledge and conduct.

This explanation depends upon the existence of correlations between either age or intelligence in both moral knowledge and the conducts studied. Chronological age, we know, does not correlate with either Behavior C or H. It does slightly in the case of Behavior A, but this factor has already been eliminated from the scores reported for this behavior. Differences in age, therefore, cannot account for these correlations.

Differences between groups in intelligence, then, must be considered as a possible explanation of our superior group r 's. Fortunately, intelligence scores were secured in the course of our study which enable us to test this hypothesis in two different ways. The first and most obvious procedure is to partial out the variability in intelligence. This we have done for Behaviors C and H in the starred cases where the differences between the

*See Kelly, Truman L. *Statistical Methods*, page 178, Formula 118. More explicitly, if each pupil's moral knowledge and deception scores were written on a card, and all the cards were shuffled and then sorted by chance into piles, the correlation between the mean moral knowledge scores and mean cheating scores of these piles would be the same as the r between the individual scores if they were thrown into one plot (within the limits of chance variation).

group and individual r 's are statistically significant, and the results are to be found in Column 7 of Tables I and III. These partials are, of course, highly unreliable, but they are large enough in several cases to indicate that intelligence is not the only factor at work to produce group similarity of knowledge and conduct. Strictly speaking these partials should be compared with corresponding partials for Column 1. We have not computed these as the only effect would be, in most cases, to increase the difference between the individual and group r 's and so still further undermine the suggestion that the group r 's are to be accounted for by differences in the mean intelligence of the classrooms.

The relatively low group r 's and high P.E.'s in the case of Behavior A make the partial correlation technique here unavailable. Hence we have adopted a different method of testing the intelligence hypothesis in this case. Our criterion here depends on the following statistical relations among random samples: If from a large population several batches of about thirty each are drawn at random, the mean and the standard deviation of each batch will be the same as the mean and the standard deviation of the whole population, within the limits of determinable errors due to chance variations among the samples.* The means of the random samples will form a normal distribution, the mean of which will be the same as the mean of the larger population and the standard deviation of which will equal the average of the S.D.

standard errors of the S.D.'s of the samples, each of which is $\frac{\text{S.D.}}{\sqrt{N}}$. If the samples are not random—not mere chance accumulations of individuals—the average of the standard errors of the sample means will be less than the S.D. of the group means. The reason for this is that when a selective force is operating to make the members of a group resemble one another more than they would by chance, the range and therefore the S.D. of the scores in the trait concerned is less than for a random sample or for the total population of which the sample is a selection. Hence the average of a series of such non-random S.D.'s is less than the S.D. of the whole population. If the selective force operates unevenly from group to group, the range and therefore the S.D. of the group means will be greater than in the case of groups chosen at random. Consequently the average of the standard errors of the group means $\left(\frac{\text{S.D.}}{\sqrt{N}}\right)$ is bound to be less than the S.D. of these group means.

Applying this criterion to our data, we are to show that even when class groups are random samples with respect to intelligence, or do not differ from one another significantly in this particular, they nevertheless do differ significantly from one another in both moral knowledge and conduct. Under these circumstances, such superiority of group over individual r 's between knowledge and conduct as is secured may with some confidence be attributed to some common factor other than intelligence.

In applying this criterion we used seven classroom groups, whose mean intelligence scores were close together, and who had Scale A of the Moral Knowledge tests, nine such groups who had Scale B, and ten of homogeneous intelligence who were tested with Behavior A. The results are summarized in Table IV.

*See Yule, G. U. *Introduction to the Theory of Statistics*, Page 344.

TABLE IV

CRITERION FOR RANDOM SAMPLING IN REGARD TO INTELLIGENCE, MORAL

KNOWLEDGE AND BEHAVIOR A

	1	2	3	4	5
	No. of groups	Ave. N	S.D. of Means	Ave. S.E. of Means	Ratio of 3 to 4
<i>Scale A.</i>					
Intelligence	7	23	3.4	3.5	.97
Causes	7	23	3.7	1.04	3.56
Duties	7	23	1.6	1.	1.60
Comprehensions	7	23	.72	.40	1.80
Provocations	7	23	1.0	.78	1.28
<i>Scale B.</i>					
Intelligence	9	24	3.2	3.5	.91
Recognitions	9	24	3.0	2.5	1.20
Principles	9	24	1.4	.45	3.1
Vocabulary	9	24	4.4	1.8	2.44
<i>Behavior A.</i>					
Intelligence	10	25	3.2	3.5	.91
Deception	10	25	12.96	5.24	2.47

Thus we see from Table IV that in each set of groups the average of the S.E. of the intelligence means is slightly greater than the S.D. of the means, indicating that the groups selected are of the same level of intelligence, or, in other words, random with respect to intelligence. In each of the moral knowledge tests, however, and also in the deception test the ratios of Column 5 show the S.D.'s of the means to be greater, often very much greater, than the S.E.'s of the means, demonstrating that these groups are not random samples but show the presence of a selective force, operating independently of intelligence, to produce variation in the means.

We have approached the suggestion that there is genuine group unity of standard and conduct by several steps which may be summarized as follows:

1. The correlation of groups, treated as units, with respect to level of moral knowledge and conduct, is not altogether due to the correlation of these two factors in the individuals composing the groups.

2. This correlation is not the product of a large number of uncorrelated factors (chance).

3. This correlation is not due to differences between the groups in age or in intelligence.

4. The variability of the groups among themselves is not such as could occur by chance, age or intelligence.

5. Since the group r 's are larger than the individual r 's, they cannot be accounted for by a causal relation between moral knowledge and conduct, since this relation could operate only through the minds of the individuals concerned.

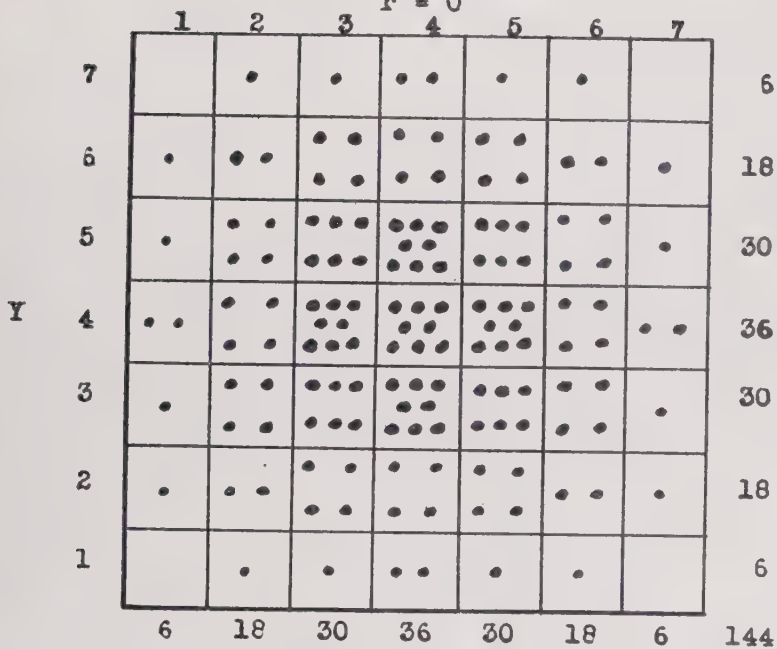
6. Hence the superiority of the group r 's must be due to the reaction of individuals to some influence which tends both toward higher code and more social conduct (and *vice versa*) without these being integrated in the minds of the individuals.

Such a common influence might be exerted either by the group as a whole through a growing tradition or by the teacher or by the school system, or by all three. No matter how much it affects either conduct or code for the better, if the correlations indicate the absence of individual integration, this improvement can hardly be regarded as growth in character.

Lest this evidence from group correlations be regarded as insubstantial we will illustrate how it is possible to get a high correlation between group means when the r between individual scores is zero. It all depends on how the groups are constituted or selected.

SCATTERGRAM No. 1

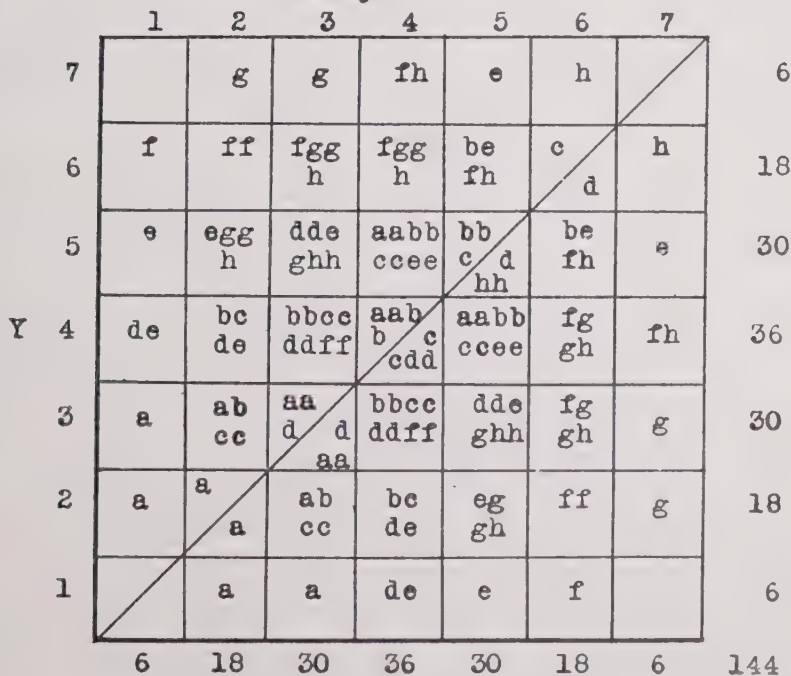
$r = 0$



SCATTERGRAM No. 2

$r = 0$

$r_{MxMy} = 1.00$



X

Consider the accompanying Scattergram, No. 1, of 144 cases in which r is 0.00.

Now we can select from these cases eight groups of eighteen cases each in such a way as to yield a correlation of either plus or minus 1.00 between the means of these groups, or of any amount in between, according to the way in which the groups are selected out of the total population of 144. Scattergram No. 2 shows a selection of eight such groups whose means will correlate $+1.00$. Every dot on Scattergram No. 1 is an individual. We now put eighteen of these individuals in group a, eighteen in group b, eighteen in group c, etc., selecting them from the total population with great care so that the mean score of the a's with respect to the scores plotted on the X axis will equal the mean of the scores plotted on the Y axis, and so also for groups b, c, d, etc. Scattergram No. 2 substitutes for the dots of Scattergram No. 1 the letters of the groups to which we have assigned the individuals and Table V gives the distributions of the scores of the individuals thus grouped for both the X and Y variables. It is obvious that the mean of each group for one variable is identical with the mean for the other variable and that the r of these means will therefore be $+1.00$.

TABLE V

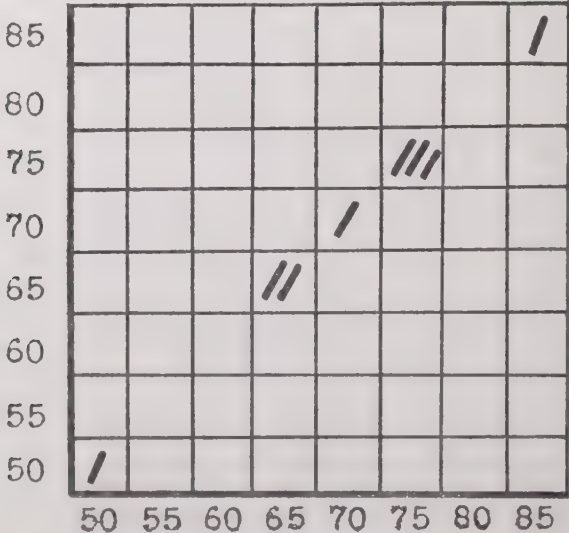
DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES OF INDIVIDUALS IN GROUPS a, b, c, ETC., ON X AND Y AXES OF SCATTERGRAM NO. 2.

Axes	x	y	x	y	x	y	x	y	x	y	x	y	x	y	x	y
Groups	a	a	b	b	c	c	d	d	e	e	f	f	g	g	h	h
1	2	2					1	1	2	2	1	1				
2	4	4	2	2	3	3	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	1	1
3	6	6	3	3	4	4	6	6	1	1	3	3	4	4	3	3
4	4	4	7	7	7	7	6	6	4	4	4	4	2	2	2	2
5	2	2	5	5	3	3	3	3	7	7	1	1	3	3	6	6
6			1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	6	6	4	4	4	4
7									1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2
Means	54	54	72	72	67	67	66	66	73	73	78	78	79	79	87	87

It will be noted that the eighteen individuals composing each group (there are 18 a's, 18 b's, etc.) are so selected as to place an equal number on each side of the principal diagonal, and in complementary cells. If this

SCATTERGRAM No. 3

$$r = +1.0$$



process were reversed and they were balanced across the opposite diagonal the r would be -1.00 .

When the means of the group scores for each axis (Table V) are plotted in Scattergram No. 3 their close correlation is seen at once.

Scattergram No. 2 shows what rigid selection will do. This is a purely theoretical arrangement and would not occur in an ordinary population.

Scattergram No. 4 shows a hypothetical case representing a simplification of the facts actually found. Here the r of the whole population is $-.316$ and $r_{mxmy} = -.579$. The distribution of scores for each group is given in Table VI and these group scores are graphed in Scattergram No. 5 which shows the variability among the group means, on both axes. Some groups are high on the X axis (moral knowledge) and low on the Y axis (deception) (g and h of Scattergram 4), others are low in moral knowledge and high in deception (a and b of Scattergram 4), and others are scattered through the center of the graph.

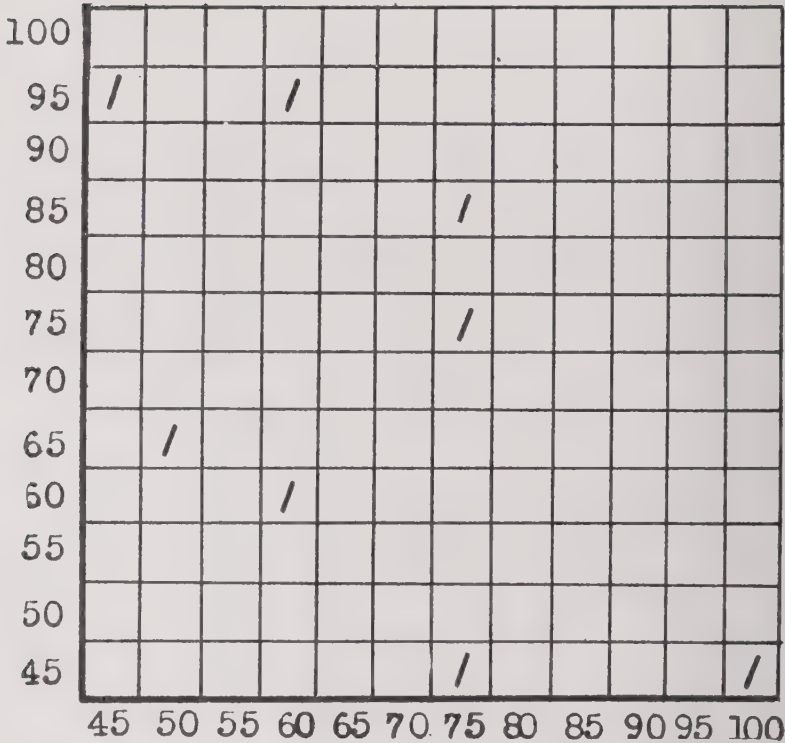
TABLE VI
DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES OF INDIVIDUALS IN GROUPS, a, b, c, ETC., ON X AND Y AXES OF SCATTERGRAM NO. 4

Axes	x	y	x	y	x	y	x	y	x	y	x	y	x	y	x	y
Groups	a	a	b	b	c	c	d	d	e	e	f	f	g	g	h	h
1	2						3				1		2		4	
2	6		4				4	2		2	5	5		5		5
3	5		5		3	1	5	5	5	3	3	6	1	8	1	5
4	5	3	5	3	4	7	6	6	6	4	3	2	2	2	2	3
5		6	4	6	5	6		5	4	5	4	4	5	1	4	1
6		7		7	3	4			2	4	2	1	7		6	
7		2		2	1				1				3		5	
Means	49	.98	63	.98	79	.85	50	.68	78	.78	64	.62	78	.49	102	.46

SCATTERGRAM No. 4
 $r = -.316$
 $r_{mxmy} = -.579$

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7	a	b		a	b			4
6	a	ab ab ac	ab ab ce	abe bc	b e	cf	e	23
5	d	abd agd f	abc abd fe	abe abe cdf	bcc ef	oge	h	34
Y 4	d	adf	abc dd fe	ab ced gde	bcc ghe	ceh	ch	30
3	d	ff	dde	gd df ef	ghcf gh gef	g gh gh	gh	28
2	f	df	gef	ehd	ghf	ghf gh	gh	19
1			h	h		gh	gh	6
	6	21	28	33	26	20	10	144

SCATTERGRAM No. 5
 $r = -.579$



These imaginary cases are given thus fully to illustrate forcefully the fact that when the r between individual scores is zero or near zero (as is the case in Tables I-III), for the r between the means of samples of the whole population to go as high as .70 or .80 requires very rigorous selection, such as would be found only in some factor tending strongly to vary the group means on both axes in the same direction from the mean of the total population.

Whatever this selective factor or influence may be it (or they) must operate on both variables. When the individual r is zero or thereabouts, if the selection of groups took place on one variable only, the r between the group means would remain zero. We showed earlier in the paper that the classroom groups are not random samples (are "selected"* by some influence which makes them vary among themselves more than they would by chance) in respect to both moral knowledge and conduct. The r 's indicate that this variation is in the same or opposite direction on the two axes. Furthermore, in the case of group r 's of .65 or more the groups must either lie in clusters or constellations in the correlation plot or else must be balanced across one of the main diagonals (as in Scattergram No. 2). The probability is that in any actual case they will be somewhat clustered and also fairly balanced as in No. 4.

*The individuals are not "selected" by us into groups *because* they are alike, as one would make some sort of arbitrary selection of those over five feet, those between four feet six inches and five feet, etc., but are actual groups whose differences among one another are due partially to the differences among the homes from which the children of different schools come and partly to influences operating within each group in the course of its common experiences.

UNDERGRADUATE INSTRUCTION IN RELIGIOUS EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

A COOPERATIVE SURVEY BY

WALKER M. ALDERTON

MARY W. CLAPP

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RUTH E. MURPHY

KATHARINE L. RICHARDS

AND OTHERS

INTRODUCTION BY GEORGE A. COE

THE RELIGIOUS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
Monograph No. 2

April, 1927

THE RELIGIOUS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

308 North Michigan Avenue - - - - - Chicago

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INTRODUCTION

The story of this survey—how it started, the methods and instruments, who did the work—is given in Appendix B. An introductory comment may therefore restrict itself to three points: The main significance of the findings, the value of such a survey, and the educational significance of the cooperative study that here gives publicity to its product.

That undergraduate instruction in religious education, until yesterday nonexistent, is now given in 172 institutions in the United States will come as a startling fact even to educators; that the educational quality of this instruction is rising will give them satisfaction, and many will rejoice at this evidence that Protestant church life and work are destined to undergo great changes.

But beyond all this, the reader will find himself confronted with a concrete, circumstantial, and analytic presentation of the whole plight of higher education in our country. Not only the relation of church colleges to the churches that founded them; the scramble of new subjects for a place in the curriculum; the strain between cultural and vocational ideals in the undergraduate college; and the scandal of departmentalized habits that mistake themselves for educational wisdom—not only these enveloping problems force themselves upon one who would understand the place of religious education in our colleges, but also the deep perplexity created by drifts of student attitude and custom, and by the current questioning concerning the function of higher education in modern society.

What is a college, and what is it for? Specifically, what connection does or should a college effect between the world's accumulated knowledge, on the one hand, and, on the other hand, the unformed purposes of students and the unfinished tasks of society?

The present survey does not, of course, pretend to answer such questions. But it does precipitate us into them. It does so inevitably because it pictures the forces at play about the student, the professor, and the administrator who have decisions to make with respect to courses and departments in a new field of study. It is one of the virtues of this production that it conceives of the teaching of religious education in terms of educational dynamics, and therefore, in terms of the social forces that jostle one another upon the campus.

But the usefulness of the work will be more than that of a well-executed drawing of an academic perspective. For these pages are rich in information. Just the things that teachers of religious education need to know about the work of one another are here, and just the things that administrators can use. The history of the movement for courses and departments of religious education, the number and the nature of the courses now given, the methods, the text-books, the institutions, their geographic and denominational distribution, even a catalog of the teachers—all are here, and much more. Whoever writes the history of Protestant religious education in this country will find in this little volume a chief source for our epoch, and we who watch the signs in the religious firmament will depend upon it as a reference work until the next comprehensive survey displaces it as a contemporary document.

In spite of the fact that the project here and now completed originated in my own mind, I am entitled to speak freely about it because others not only did practically all the work upon details, but also made most of the plans, and prepared the manuscript for publication. The methods of inquiry, of analysis, and of presentation speak for themselves upon the pages of the book. Back of the smooth

results, however, are not only immensely laborious endeavor, but also amazing grit and pertinacity in the hunt for facts and in self-imposed insistence upon accuracy.

Still more significant are two other circumstances: This is a cooperative enterprise, and it is the project of a class of graduate students.

For many years I have maintained that graduates engaged in the study of religious education can and should write for publication while they are students. Not only is this kind of contact with the field (over and above what is commonly meant by practice work) upbuilding for the student; it is also a normal relation of helpfulness, and it could do much to fill the gap that now exists between advanced studies and everyday standards and practices.

But, as a rule, even advanced graduate

students shrink from such publicity. I attribute this shrinking partly to the laudable humility of the learner, partly to lack of literary technic, but most of all to the habit, fostered throughout our system of education, of separating study from life. Through no fault of his own, the student is led to assume that, for the time being, he is to live apart from the toil of the churches, at least apart from some of the most obvious functions of professional learning.

This cooperative survey is by far the largest single product of my oft-repeated urging of students to do field work through the medium of print. If I am proud to have suggested the project, and still prouder that it has been executed so valiantly, discriminating readers will perceive why.

George A. Coe.

CHAPTER I

THE SCOPE OF THIS SURVEY

PREVIOUS STUDIES

The first effort to make an accurate survey of undergraduate instruction in religious education was carried on by Prof. Walter S. Athearn in 1914 at the request of a commission of the Religious Education Association. The results of this study were published in *RELIGIOUS EDUCATION*, October, 1915. Several denominations have made surveys of the courses in religious education in their colleges, the most recent being that made among the colleges of the Disciples of Christ.¹ A study of "Classroom Instruction in Religion in Two Hundred and Fifty Colleges" was carried on by the Council of Church Boards of Education for the year 1923-1924.² This survey included all the colleges of the denominations affiliated with the Council of Church Boards, but did not consider independent or state institutions. It covered courses in Bible, Ethics, History of Religions, Religious Education, and related subjects.

A still more comprehensive study of "Undergraduate Courses in Religion" was made at about the same time by several National Fellows in Religion under the direction of the late Dr. Charles Foster Kent. One survey was conducted of courses in religion at tax-supported colleges and universities during the academic year 1922-1923,³ and another of similar courses in denominational and independent colleges and universities during 1923-1924.⁴ Another interesting study from a different angle was made by Dr. Faye Klyver, also for the academic year 1923-1924. In making a research into the "Supervision of Student-Teachers in Re-

ligious Education" she found it necessary to discover what academic work in religious education was being provided by colleges. Her main purpose, however, was to study the opportunities for field work under supervision which are afforded by the colleges.⁵

SCOPE OF THIS SURVEY

At first thought it may seem that sufficient data were already on hand for any study of the teaching of religious education in American colleges and universities; but there were certain gaps in the available information which made it necessary to add another questionnaire to the swelling flood of survey circulars. The present study is more comprehensive and intensive in some respects than any of the earlier surveys. It includes all the institutions in the United States which by a liberal interpretation may be called colleges and universities, that is, all whose catalogues could be found in any of the available libraries.⁶ It includes both standard and non-standard colleges; Catholic colleges and universities; state universities and agricultural colleges; the majority of state normal schools and teachers' colleges; junior colleges; and religious training schools which give a bachelor's degree. In all, the catalogues of about 800 institutions were examined. Of this number, 270 reported courses in religious education according to the definition used in this study. Two hundred and eleven, or eighty per cent, of these institutions returned the questionnaire.

5. Klyver, Faye H., Ph. D., *The Supervision of Student-Teachers in Religious Education*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia Univ., Chapters II and III. Note: Just as this manuscript was going to press, there appeared a monograph by Professor Edward S. Boyer of Dakota Wesleyan University entitled, "The Development of Religious Education in Higher Institutions with Special Reference to Schools of Religion at State Universities and Colleges." *Christian Education*, Vol. XI, No. 1, October, 1927.

6. For a detailed description of the questionnaire and the methods used in the survey, see Appendix B.

1. Reported in *Religious Education*, May, 1927, p. 483.

2. *Christian Education*, March, 1925, pp. 211-264.

3. Bulletin IV, The National Council on Religion in Higher Education.

4. Bulletin VI, The National Council on Religion in Higher Education.

No survey of this type can claim perfect reliability. Errors of interpretation are involved on the part of the respondents; the waste basket inevitably attracts a small proportion of the requests, and incorrect addresses eliminate others. But sufficient care has been taken in this study to warrant the assumption of a high degree of accuracy. The facts and figures which have been tabulated probably represent more than ninety per cent of the instruction which is actually being offered in religious education in undergraduate schools. In view of the sending of two follow-up letters to those institutions which did not respond to the first request, it is fair to assume that no courses are being given at present in most of the twenty per cent of the colleges from which no reply was received.

By narrowing the field of study to religious education in its more technical sense, it was possible to secure certain details concerning the teaching of these courses which were not included in previous studies. Information was gathered concerning methods of instruction, the names and training of professors, texts and reference books, the aims of the department, the length of time courses have been established, and other matters which are essential for a complete picture of the present situation.

USE OF THE TERM "RELIGIOUS EDUCATION"

Any one who has glanced through a number of college catalogues knows that the term "Religious Education" is used in widely different ways. The majority of college teachers and administrators include under this head all courses bearing on the study of religion. It includes the religious education of students, as well as the training of students to be religious educators. For the purposes of this study, however, the scope of the term was definitely limited. The directions sent with the questionnaire stated:

"By the term 'Religious Education' in this survey is meant the theory and practice of teaching religion. It does not include courses on the Bible, Psychology, Ethics, and other related subjects unless these courses deal definitely with the teaching of religion."

This definition was puzzling to many correspondents who wanted to report all the courses in religion in their institutions. It was disregarded by some of them, making it necessary for those who tabulated the data to eliminate many figures which had been included. Some persons evidently considered this limitation unfortunate and saw in it a desire to discount the importance of the Bible. One professor of Bible wrote as follows:

"It seems to me one must have a peculiar idea of Religious Education which excludes all Bible courses and if this is to be published anywhere as an indication of the work ——— College does in the field of Religious Education, I trust you may leave us out of consideration. If it has reached the stage that an American college is supposed to teach 'Religious Education' and neglect the text book of the Christian religion, we are outside the classification."

Another professor's reply indicates that he regarded the exclusion of the Bible as a subtle piece of modernist propaganda:

"Ours is a Church College, with no University aspirations. Of course, we make the study of the Bible the vehicle for a great deal of ethical and religious instruction. The attitude of the teachers is intensely conservative. No Modernistic instruction or propaganda would be tolerated by the controlling presbyteries."

It need scarcely be stated that the survey group had no thought of slighting the Bible in the teaching of religion or of introducing liberalism in disguise. The limitation of "Religious Education" to the rather technical use of the term was partly a counsel of convenience. An intensive study of all courses in religion in undergraduate institutions would have been a task far beyond the available time and resources. The concentration of this study upon "the theory and practice of teaching religion" was due to a special interest in this field. To make a special investigation of all words beginning with the letter G

does not mean that one disparages the remainder of the alphabet.

The use of "Religious Education" in this restricted sense is not without precedent. Substantially the same definition of the term was adopted by Professor Athearn in his survey in 1914. In commenting on the situation at that time, Professor L. A. Weigle said:

"I shall use the term as Professor Athearn does, to cover only courses that seek to train students to teach religion to others—courses, in other words, that in the religious field parallel those in the history and practice of teaching now offered by departments of education in most colleges."

All courses that a student takes in college are supposed to contribute to his education, but a certain group of studies which are designed to prepare one to teach or to give one some understanding of the place of education in modern life are labeled "Education." It would be more accurate and less confusing to make a similar restriction of the term "Religious Education" in describing college courses. This would not imply any discounting of the value of many studies in the curriculum for the development of the religious life and thought of students.

It is true, however, that this definition excludes some courses which have an important bearing upon the teaching of religion. The teaching values of the Bible are frequently touched upon in courses on biblical literature. One professor added this comment:

"In the courses, History and Literature of the Old Testament, History and Literature of the New Testament, and Religious Foundations the problem of teaching younger minds is constantly brought up for discussion."

Some of the most effective work in giving an insight into the teaching of religion may come in courses which are not officially classified as "Religious Educa-

tion." This difficulty is inherent, however, in any setting of standards; a definition, however necessary it may be for practical purposes, has inevitable limitations.

Courses in the Psychology of Religion offer a special problem. Here the content varies from a broad treatment of all phases of the religious consciousness, with no definite bearing upon religious education, to a study of the development of the religious experience of children and adolescents, which is of the very essence of preparation for teaching religion. The general rule has been followed of including these courses only when the catalogue statement indicated that they related directly to religious education. One professor wrote concerning his course in Psychology of Religion:

"There is constant reference to the educational implications in the course although it is not, of course, strictly an educational subject."

Under these circumstances, when so much depends upon the individual teacher, the data concerning courses in the psychology of religion in this survey cannot be regarded as highly reliable.

PROBLEMS COVERED BY SURVEY

The results of the survey will be grouped in such a way as to attempt an answer to the following questions: (1) How extensive is undergraduate instruction in religious education in the United States? (2) How are courses in religious education related to other courses in the curriculum? (3) To what extent does this instruction represent professional training? (4) What kind of instruction is being given in religious education? (5) To what extent are the teachers of these courses specially trained in religious education? (6) What books are being used as texts and references? To what extent are these books adequate?

7. *Religious Education*, August, 1915, p. 347.

CHAPTER II

THE INSTITUTIONS THAT GIVE UNDER-GRADUATE INSTRUCTION IN RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

EXPLANATION OF TABULATION

Table I summarizes the most significant facts concerning the quantity of instruction in religious education. The 172 institutions in which courses in religious education were being taught in 1925-1926 are listed alphabetically according to states.¹ The third column indicates the body by which the institution is controlled or with which it is affiliated. Other columns show how many courses are given in each institution, how many semester hours of credit are given for these

courses, and the total enrollment of students in courses in religious education. Where the academic year is divided into three terms or four quarters, the credits were translated into terms of semester hours. The "Students" column includes duplicates and represents student elections rather than the number of different students enrolled in courses in religious education.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION

Thirty-six states (including the District of Columbia) have one or more colleges which include courses in religious education in their curricula. This indicates that

1. In a number of cases, where the replies were delayed, the figures were given for 1926-1927 instead of 1925-1926.

TABLE I

AMOUNT OF UNDERGRADUATE INSTRUCTION IN RELIGIOUS EDUCATION, 1925-1926

<i>Institution</i>	<i>State</i>	<i>Affiliation</i>	<i>Courses</i>	<i>Hours</i>	<i>Students</i>
Alabama College	Alabama	State	1	2	14
Alabama Poly. Inst.	Alabama	State	2	6	33
Birmingham-Southern	Alabama	M. E., South.....	5	14	94
Howard College	Alabama	Baptist, So.	7	20	140
Judson College	Alabama	Baptist, So.	1	2	31
Payne Univ. (Col.).....	Alabama	African M. E.....	2	3	13
Univ. of Alabama.....	Alabama	State	2	4	57
Woman's College of Ala.....	Alabama	M. E., South.....	4	8	49
Hendrix College	Arkansas	M. E., South.....	1	3	20
Coll. of the Pacific.....	California	Meth. Epis.	6	18	27
Pomona College	California	Congregational	2	4	22
Univ. of So. Cal.....	California	Meth. Epis.	9	23	124
Whittier College	California	Friends	6	18	66
Hartford School of R. E.....	Connecticut	Congregational	10	20	152
American University	Dist. of Columbia.....	Meth. Epis.	3	6	22
Howard University (Col.)....	Dist. of Columbia.....	Federal	4	10	46
Y. M. C. A. College.....	Dist. of Columbia.....	Independent	2	4	24
Southern College	Florida	M. E., South.....	5	18	88
Atlanta Univ. (Col.).....	Georgia	Am. Miss. Ass.....	1	2	15
Lagrange College	Georgia	M. E., South.....	3	4	44
Piedmont College	Georgia	Congregational	2	6	32
Reinhardt College (Jr.).....	Georgia	M. E., South.....	6	6	72
Wesleyan College	Georgia	M. E., South.....	7	21	113
Augustana College	Illinois	Lutheran, (Mo. Syn.)..	2	10	121
Carthage College	Illinois	United Luth.	1	3	24
Concordia T. C. (Jr.).....	Illinois	Lutheran, Mo.	2	10	121
Elmhurst College	Illinois	Ev. Synod of N. A....	2	6	9
Eureka College	Illinois	Disciples	7	22	102

<i>Institution</i>	<i>State</i>	<i>Affiliation</i>	<i>Courses</i>	<i>Hours</i>	<i>Students</i>
Illinois College	Illinois	Cong. & Presby.....	2	6	54
Illinois Wesleyan	Illinois	Meth. Epis.	3	9	34
Illinois Woman's Coll.....	Illinois	Meth. Epis.	1	3	6
James Millikin Univ.....	Illinois	Presbyterian	2	6	10
Lombard College	Illinois	Universalist	1	2	31
Monmouth College	Illinois	Un. Presby.	4	6	27
Mt. Morris College.....	Illinois	Brethren	1	4	9
North-Central College	Illinois	Evangelical	4	18	49
Northwestern Univ.	Illinois	Meth. Epis.	20	59	347
Shurtleff College	Illinois	Baptist, No.	1	4	9
Butler University	Indiana	Disciples	4	10	30
Earlham College	Indiana	Friends	1	3	7
Indiana Central Coll.....	Indiana	United Breth.	2	6	24
Manchester College	Indiana	Brethren	7	18	75
Taylor University	Indiana	Meth. Epis.	1	4	7
Wabash College	Indiana	Presbyterian	2	6	25
Coe College	Iowa	Presbyterian	1	4	10
Drake University	Iowa	Disciples	10	30	122
Morningside College	Iowa	Meth. Epis.	3	8	22
Penn College	Iowa	Friends	8	16	111
Simpson College	Iowa	Meth. Epis.	2	4	32
Tabor College	Iowa	Meth. Epis.	6	17	50
Upper Iowa Univ.....	Iowa	Cong. & Epis.....	2	4	30
Baker University	Kansas	Meth. Epis.	2	6	38
Friends University	Kansas	Friends	1	3	8
Kansas State Ag. Coll.....	Kansas	State	2	4	24
McPherson College	Kansas	Brethren	4	12	34
Ottawa University	Kansas	Baptist, No.	4	8	36
Southwestern College	Kansas	Meth. Epis.	2	4	36
Sterling College	Kansas	United Presby.	2	4	130
Univ. of Wichita.....	Kansas	Municipal	2	8	20
Centre College	Kentucky	Presby. (US & USA) ..	1	6	9
Transylvania College	Kentucky	Disciples	9	18	116
Centenary College	Louisiana	M. E., South	7	20	82
Colby College	Maine	Baptist, No.	1	6	21
Boston University	Massachusetts	Meth. Epis.	39	109	1,059
Internat. Y. M. C. A. Coll.....	Massachusetts	Independent	2	4	49
Smith College	Massachusetts	Independent	1	2	11
Tufts College	Massachusetts	Universalist	2	5	14
Adrian College	Michigan	Meth. Protestant	2	4	12
Albion College	Michigan	Meth. Epis.	1	4	8
Alma College	Michigan	Presbyterian	1	6	3
Hillsdale College	Michigan	Baptist, No.	4	22	21
Concordia College	Minnesota	Luth., Norwegian	1	4	66
Hamline University	Minnesota	Meth. Epis.	3	6	55
Macalester College	Minnesota	Presbyterian	2	6	12
St. Olaf College.....	Minnesota	Luth., Norwegian	2	4	91
Grenada College	Mississippi	M. E., South	3	9	84
Mississippi College	Mississippi	Baptist, So.	3	6	131
State T. C. (Hattiesburg).....	Mississippi	State	1	2	32
Whitworth College	Mississippi	M. E., South	2	4	20
Central College	Missouri	M. E., South	2	6	16
Culver-Stockton Coll.	Missouri	Disciples	1	4	10
Drury College	Missouri	Congregational	1	4	43
Park College	Missouri	Presbyterian	5	15	138
Stephens College (Jr.).....	Missouri	Baptist, No.	1	3	8
Tarkio College	Missouri	United Presby.	3	12	72
Univ. of Missouri.....	Missouri	State	3	7	25
Westminster College	Missouri	Presby., U. S.	1	3	14
William Jewell College.....	Missouri	Baptist, No.	1	4	60
Intermountain Union	Montana	M. E. & Presby.....	2	4	22
Cotner College	Nebraska	Disciples	3	21	51
Doane College	Nebraska	Congregational	2	4	9
Midland College	Nebraska	United Lutheran	1	2	6
Nebraska Wesleyan	Nebraska	Meth. Epis.	6	16	*..
Alfred University	New York	Seventh Day Bapt.....	2	5	28
Auburn School of R. E.....	New York	Presbyterian	49	84	607

<i>Institution</i>	<i>State</i>	<i>Affiliation</i>	<i>Courses</i>	<i>Hours</i>	<i>Students</i>
Elmira College	New York.....	Presbyterian	1	3	9
Keuka College	New York.....	Baptist, No.	1	4	8
Atlantic Christian	North Carolina...	Disciples	4	22	38
Duke University	North Carolina...	M. E., South	4	13	82
Elon College	North Carolina...	Christian	10	60	143
Greensboro College	North Carolina...	M. E., South	2	12	51
Meredith College	North Carolina...	Baptist, So.	1	6	12
Queens College	North Carolina...	Presby., U. S.	2	6	64
Wake Forest College.....	North Carolina...	Baptist, So.	1	2	12
Jamestown College	North Dakota....	Presbyterian	2	4	21
Wesley College	North Dakota....	Meth. Epis.	1	2	† 8
Baldwin-Wallace Coll.	Ohio	Meth. Epis.	6	20	80
Captal University	Ohio	Luth., (Syn. of O.)...	1	4	14
Cedarville College	Ohio	Reformed Presby. ...	1	1	14
Defiance College	Ohio	Christian	5	15	22
Denison University	Ohio	Baptist, No.	9	26	101
Muskingum College	Ohio	United Presby.	1	2	20
Ohio Northern Univ.....	Ohio	Meth. Epis.	6	15	61
Ohio Wesleyan Univ.....	Ohio	Meth. Epis.	8	28	69
Otterbein College	Ohio	United Brethren	5	15	57
Western Coll. for Women....	Ohio	Presbyterian	1	3	6
Wilmington College	Ohio	Friends	2	4	24
Wittenberg College	Ohio	United Lutheran	13	37	275
Oklahoma Baptist Univ.....	Oklahoma	Baptist, So.	4	8	100
Oklahoma City Univ.....	Oklahoma	Meth. Epis.	2	4	12
Phillips University	Oklahoma	Disciples	8	25	128
Univ. of Oklahoma.....	Oklahoma	State	1	2	8
Eugene Bible Univ.....	Oregon	Disciples	2	16	46
Linfield College	Oregon	Baptist, No.	5	16	59
Willamette Univ.	Oregon	Meth. Epis.	6	14	48
Bucknell University	Pennsylvania	Baptist, No.	3	9	16
Cedar Crest College.....	Pennsylvania	Reformed in U. S....	10	36	42
Dickinson College	Pennsylvania	Meth. Epis.	2	5	13
Franklin & Marshall Coll....	Pennsylvania	Reformed in U. S....	2	4	16
Grove City College.....	Pennsylvania	Presbyterian	4	8	85
Penna. Coll. for Women....	Pennsylvania	Independent	1	3	6
Seton Hill College.....	Pennsylvania	Roman Catholic	2	3	*..
Thiel College	Pennsylvania	United Lutheran	1	4	5
Temple University	Pennsylvania	Independent	3	12	54
Univ. of Pittsburgh.....	Pennsylvania	Independent & State..	6	12	79
Wilson College	Pennsylvania	Presbyterian	4	4	46
Benedict College (Col.)....	South Carolina...	Baptist, No.	1	4	65
Columbia College	South Carolina...	M. E., South	5	15	161
Furman University	South Carolina...	Baptist, So.	3	6	101
Lander College	South Carolina...	M. E., South	5	12	238
Limestone College	South Carolina...	Baptist, So.	1	2	10
Summerland College (Jr.)...	South Carolina...	United Lutheran	1	3	35
Univ. of So. Carolina.....	South Carolina...	State	1	3	36
Wofford College	South Carolina...	M. E., South	2	12	67
Dakota Wesleyan	South Dakota....	Meth. Epis.	4	9	22
Huron College	South Dakota....	Presbyterian	2	9	13
Yankton College	South Dakota....	Congregational	1	3	10
Fisk University (Col.).....	Tennessee	Am. Miss. Ass.....	4	7	54
Geo. Peabody T. Coll.....	Tennessee	Independent	10	21	160
Hiwassee College (Jr.)....	Tennessee	M. E., South	2	9	28
Lambuth College	Tennessee	M. E., South	4	12	105
Martin College (Jr.).....	Tennessee	M. E., South	1	3	25
Maryville College	Tennessee	Presbyterian	8	6	64
Scarritt College	Tennessee	M. E., South	11	19	263
Univ. of Chattanooga.....	Tennessee	Meth. Epis.	6	14	99
Simmons University	Texas	Baptist, So.	7	11	185
Texas Christian Univ.....	Texas	Disciples	6	18	65
Texas Woman's College.....	Texas	M. E., South	4	11	141
Wesley College (Jr.).....	Texas	M. E., South	1	4	18
Averett College (Jr.).....	Virginia	Baptist, So.	1	2	8
Bridgewater College	Virginia	Brethren	5	15	90
Emory and Henry College....	Virginia	M. E., South	7	22	173

<i>Institution</i>	<i>State</i>	<i>Affiliation</i>	<i>Courses</i>	<i>Hours</i>	<i>Students</i>
Hollins College	Virginia	Independent	1	2	3
Lynchburg College	Virginia	Disciples	1	4	6
Randolph-Macon Woman's	Virginia	M. E., South	1	2	12
Coll. of Puget Sound	Washington	Meth. Epis.	4	10	18
Bethany College	West Virginia	Disciples	6	20	52
Morris Harvey College	West Virginia	M. E., South	5	11	42
Carroll College	Wisconsin	Presbyterian	2	4	19
Lawrence College	Wisconsin	Meth. Epis.	2	4	18
Milton College	Wisconsin	Seventh Day Bapt.	2	6	7
Northland College	Wisconsin	Congregational	1	3	3
Total number of institutions—172.			657	1,811	10,389

*Data incomplete.

†Includes only the branch at the State University; data for the Agricultural College branch not available.

the movement toward offering instruction in the teaching of religion is fairly widespread. A glance at Table II, however, will show where the movement has gained greatest favor. The Central and South Eastern states take the lead, with the Middle Western states close rivals.

TABLE II

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF
COLLEGES OFFERING COURSES IN
RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

New England

Maine	1
New Hampshire	0
Vermont	0
Massachusetts	4
Connecticut	1
Rhode Island	0
<hr/>	
	6

Middle Atlantic

New York	4
New Jersey	0
Pennsylvania	11
Delaware	0
District of Columbia	3
Maryland	0
West Virginia	2
<hr/>	
	20

Central

Michigan	4
Wisconsin	4
Illinois	15
Indiana	6
Ohio	12
Kentucky	2
<hr/>	
	43

Middle Western

Iowa	7
Missouri	9
Kansas	8
Nebraska	4

North Dakota	?
South Dakota	3
Minnesota	4
<hr/>	
	37

South Eastern

Virginia	6
North Carolina	7
South Carolina	8
Tennessee	8
Alabama	8
Georgia	5
Florida	1
<hr/>	
	43

South Central

Mississippi	4
Arkansas	1
Louisiana	1
Oklahoma	4
Texas	4
<hr/>	
	14

Far Western

Montana	1
Idaho	0
Wyoming	0
Colorado	0
Utah	0
Arizona	0
Nevada	0
California	4
Oregon	3
Washington	1
<hr/>	
	9

If it were not for the Pennsylvania colleges, the Middle Atlantic states would have a very small proportion of the total. The small number of institutions from the Far Western states offering courses in religious education can be explained partly by the comparative sparseness of colleges in that area. But it is noteworthy

that the New England states and New York, with their large number of well established institutions for higher education, have so few colleges in the list. Illinois ranks first, Ohio second, and Pennsylvania third, in respect to the number of colleges providing instruction in religious education. If the total number of institutions in the state is taken into account, however, Ohio and Pennsylvania do not rank so high. On the basis of the proportion of colleges in relation to the total number in the state, Illinois ranks first, Alabama second, and Kansas and Missouri next, while Massachusetts, New York and Texas are near the bottom of the list. Only ten per cent of the institutions in New York State include religious education in their curricula.

TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS

The figures relating to support or affiliation of institutions in which courses in religious education are taught are significant.

Denominational	154
State	8
Independent	8
Federal	1
Municipal	1
	172

In many cases it is difficult to determine whether a college should be listed as denominational or independent. If legal control exercised through restrictions concerning the trustees or faculty were the criterion, many more of the institutions included in this study would be listed as independent. But if one wishes to indicate in a broader way the historical and financial relations of a college, such a definition as the following is of more value:

"The denominational college is an institution standing in a definite relation, legal, affiliated, or friendly, to a Christian denomination."³

Because of the loose governmental pol-

icy of the Congregational Church, most of the institutions historically connected with this denomination are legally independent. Some denominations distinguish in their year books between those colleges which are controlled by the church and those which are affiliated. This statement, for example, is attached to certain colleges in the list of institutions in the Annual Report of the Board of Christian Education of the Presbyterian Church, U. S. A.:

"These institutions are not connected with the Presbyterian Church by any legal ties, nor are they subject to ecclesiastical control. Their history, however, and associations with the life and the work of our Church are such as to justify our earnest cooperation with them."

The principle followed in Table I was to classify as denominational any institution which is included in the year book of that church.

It is evident from the preceding figures that the vast majority of the colleges which provide courses in religious education are affiliated more or less closely with some denomination. When it is recalled that the work in religious education at state universities is in most cases carried on by denominational or interdenominational support, that the institution listed as "Federal," Howard University, had a Congregational origin, and that the one municipal university giving courses in religious education was a Congregational college until recently,³ the non-denominational influence in the movement toward religious education in colleges is recognized as negligible. State universities and normal schools are even less ready to introduce courses in religious education than they are to approve courses in biblical literature and history of religions.⁴ On the other hand, approximately one-third of the denominational colleges and universities in the United

3. Fairmount College became the municipal University of Wichita in 1926.

4. Cf. Bulletin IV of the National Council on Religion in Higher Education, "Undergraduate Courses in Religion at Tax-Supported Colleges and Universities of America."

2. Crawford, W. H., Proceedings of the First Annual Meeting of the Association of American Colleges, p. 126.

TABLE III

SIZE OF INSTITUTIONS PROVIDING
RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

Student Enrollment	Number of Colleges
Below 100	6
100 to 250	32
250 to 500	57
500 to 750	39
750 to 1000	14
1000 to 1500	9
1500 to 2500	9
2500 to 3500	2
3500 to 5000	1
Over 5000	3
	172
Median size—462.	
Below 750—78%.	
Below 500—55%.	

States are now providing courses in religious education.⁵

Table III shows the size of the institutions which offer courses in religious education. The figures for enrollment include the professional or pre-professional schools of the universities. If they were restricted to enrollment in the liberal arts colleges of the universities, the average would be still lower. Thirty-three per cent of the institutions have an enrollment between 250 and 500; fifty-five per cent have an enrollment less than 500; seventy-eight per cent have less than 750 students. The median size is 462. What is the significance of the fact that the majority of these institutions giving religious education are small colleges? It is a reflection in part of the tendency of denominational colleges to be generally much smaller than state universities. Nevertheless, the conclusion must be drawn that the institutions that are best equipped from the standpoint of financial support and adequacy of faculty are the least likely to offer courses in religious education. If there is validity in the standard that an efficient college⁶ should have a student body of about 500, more

than half of the institutions that provide courses in religious education are not "efficient" in this sense.

The question may be raised whether the sex of the student body has any influence on the introduction of work in religious education. Of the 172 institutions giving such courses, 132 are co-educational, 27 are for women, and 13 for men. On the assumption that the number of women's colleges is approximately equal to the number of colleges for men, there seems to be a distinctly greater possibility that religious education will be found in the former type of institution. Does this signify that women are considered to be more interested in the teaching of religion than men?

DENOMINATIONAL PROMOTION OF RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

Diagram 1 shows the part which the various denominations have taken in establishing instruction in religious education in their colleges. This graph portrays not only the number of institutions in each denomination which offer courses, but the proportion of this number to the total group of colleges affiliated with that church body.⁷ The first observation worthy of note is that practically every denomination which supports church colleges is represented on the list. Other striking facts are shown by the graph: the Methodist group, including the African Methodist Episcopal and Methodist Protestant Churches, comprises about one-third of the total number of institutions; among the larger denominations, the United Presbyterians and Disciples have the largest proportion of colleges giving instruction in religious education; there is a marked difference of policy between the northern and southern branches of the Presbyterian Church. It is evident that the Methodists, Presbyterians,

5. There are approximately 450 denominational and independent institutions in the U. S. (excluding junior colleges).

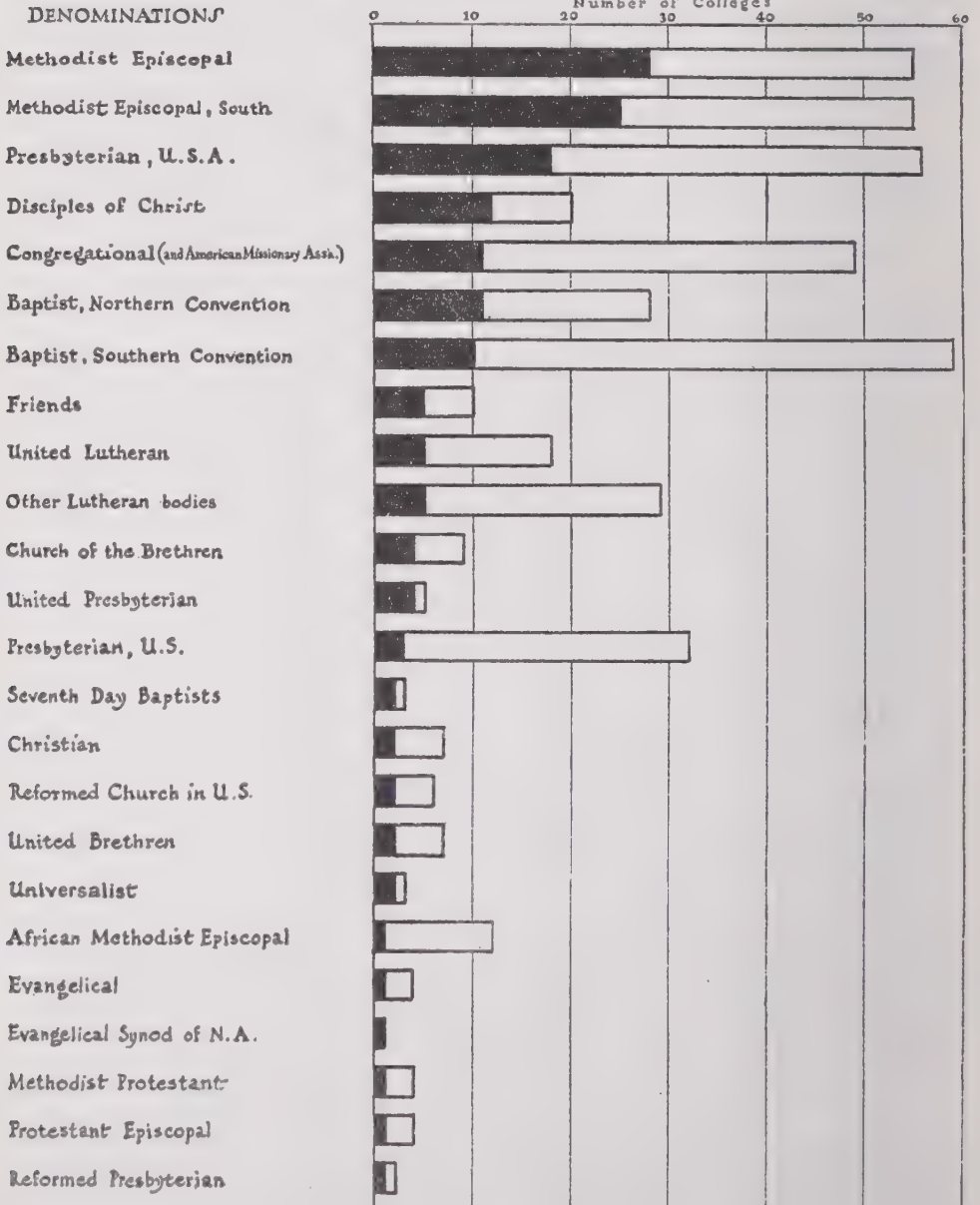
6. For discussion on the "Efficient College" see *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, Vol. III, No. 2, 1917, and Vol. XII, No. 3, May, 1926

7. Figures for the total number of institutions were taken from *The Handbook of the Churches*, Federal Council of the Churches of Christ, 1927.

Diagram 1
DENOMINATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF COLLEGES
OFFERING COURSES IN RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

Legend

- Colleges offering courses in Religious Education.
- Colleges NOT offering courses in Religious Education.



SUMMARY OF DIAGRAM 1

DENOMINATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF
COLLEGES OFFERING COURSES IN
RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

Denomination	No. of Colleges with R. E. Courses	Total No. of Affiliated Colleges
Methodist Episcopal	28	55
Methodist Episcopal, South	25	55
Presbyterian, U. S. A.	18	56
Disciples of Christ.....	12	20
Baptist, Northern Conven- tion	11	28
Baptist, Southern Conven- tion	10	59
Congregational	9	42
Friends	5	10
United Lutheran	5	18
Church of the Brethren... ..	4	8
United Presbyterian	4	5
Presbyterian, U. S.	3	32
American Missionary Asso- ciation	2	7
Seventh Day Baptist.....	2	3
Christian	2	7
Reformed in the U. S.	2	6
Norwegian Lutheran.....	2	7
United Brethren	2	7
Universalist	2	3
African Methodist Episco- pal	1	12
Evangelical	1	4
Evangelical Synod of N. A. ..	1	1
Lutheran, Augustana Synod. ..	1	9
Lutheran, Joint Synod of Ohio	1	1
Lutheran, Missouri Synod..	1	12
Methodist Protestant	1	4
Protestant Episcopal	1	4
Reformed Presbyterian ...	1	2

Disciples and Baptists are the leaders in promoting courses in religious education in their colleges. It will be interesting to see to what extent the present situation in this respect reflects the importance of these groups in the earlier development of the movement.⁸

Only one college of the Roman Catholic Church was discovered which offers courses falling under the head of religious education as used in this survey, although the catalogues of many Catholic institutions were examined. It would be misleading to place this one college over against the 131 Catholic colleges and uni-

versities in the United States,⁹ because the Catholic system of training religious leaders is so different from the Protestant. The majority of the teachers in Catholic parochial schools receive their preparation in religious novitiates and normal training schools. The emphasis in courses on religion in Catholic colleges is almost wholly biblical, doctrinal, and philosophical. There is evidence, however, that some Catholic educators are seeking to give courses in the training of religious teachers a place in the college curriculum. In the report of the discussion at a recent meeting of the Catholic Educational Association the following statement appears:

"Catholic colleges have performed excellent work in academic lines by providing their students with intellectual training, but apparently little has been done to provide professional training for teachers. A Catholic university or a Catholic college must recognize its identity of interest with the Catholic parish school, elementary and secondary. A Catholic college must help the teachers of the elementary and secondary schools by training courses especially designed to meet the needs of the religious teachers in service both during the regular session and in summer schools."¹⁰

COURSES ADVERTISED BUT NOT TAUGHT

Great care was taken in tabulating the replies to eliminate all courses which were announced in the catalogue but were not actually being taught. It was requested that figures be given for "enrollment during the last semester in which the course was offered," in order that courses which are given only in alternate years might be duly credited. Thirty-nine out of the 211 institutions replied that no courses were being given in 1925-1926 in religious education, although the catalogues stated that such courses were offered. In 36 other institutions were found one or more courses which were advertised but not taught.

9. This figure is gained from the *Directory of Catholic Colleges and Schools*, National Catholic Welfare Council Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., 1921.

10. Discussion by Rev. Joseph Barbian, *Catholic Educational Association Bulletin*, November, 1926, pp. 410-411.

8. See Chapter VII.

There is a total of 147 "paper" courses in 76 institutions, comprising 380 hours. It is fair to assume that complete returns would have increased these totals to a marked degree, since a number of those in charge of the work at institutions where no courses are being given at present probably did not take the trouble to reply. Even with the available figures, it is somewhat startling to realize that a survey on the basis of catalogues alone would have been almost twenty percent in error.

Some of these discrepancies can be put aside as unavoidable. Since a catalogue must be prepared some months in advance of the academic year, changes in the teaching staff or the administration may easily cause certain courses to be added or omitted. Another source of variation between courses that are announced and those that are given lies in the failure of enough students to elect a course to warrant its being taught. In a number of catalogues the statement is made that a course will be offered only if a certain number of students request it. In cases where this is true of religious education, there is evidence that the supply exceeds the student demand. A fairly large proportion of the discrepancies may probably be attributed to the tendency on the part of some college administrators to make the catalogue represent ambitions rather than facts. Especially in the case of religious education, it is desirable that the church constituency shall know that these courses are being contemplated, even though there is no certainty of their being given during the coming year. Some professors, in preparing a statement for the catalogue, allow their enthusiasm to outrun the possibilities of their schedule. On the whole, these facts concerning "paper" courses are significant as an indication that college instruction in religious education is as yet a relatively new and unstable enterprise. If a financial shortage makes a cutting of the academic

offerings necessary, courses in religious education are often among the first to suffer. There is some evidence from the survey carried on by Miss Beam for the Council of Church Boards of Education that the variation between theory and practice is greater in the field of religious education than in Bible and other courses in religion.¹¹

ACADEMIC STANDARDS

A question naturally arises concerning the academic standing of the institutions which include courses in religious education in their curricula. How many of these 172 colleges are high-grade institutions? The most objective measure at present of the standards of American colleges is found in the various lists of accredited institutions published by the standardizing agencies.¹² One hundred and three, or 60 per cent, of the colleges and universities offering undergraduate instruction in religious education appear on the accredited lists of national or regional standardizing agencies; 36, or 21 per cent, are accredited only by the state university or the department of education of the state in which they are located; and 28, or 16 per cent, are not included on the lists of any standardizing agency. Five are graded as Class B institutions. The proportion of non-standard institutions seems comparatively high. These figures may be indicative of a tendency on the part of administrators in denominational institutions to offer courses in religious education, even though certain academic standards have not been attained, out of a feeling of loyalty to the church and a desire to secure greater support from the denominational constituency. It should be noted, however, that the majority of institutions which are not accredited are located in southern

11. *Christian Education*, Vol. VIII, No. 6, March, 1925, p. 253.

12. "Accredited Higher Institutions," United States Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education Bulletin, No. 10 (1926).

states, where the movement toward standardization is not so highly developed.

Fifty-one of the institutions which offer courses in religious education are included in the list of 105 colleges and universities whose Biblical Departments are rated as grade A by the Religious Education Association.¹³ If any conclusion can be drawn from this fact, it is that one-half of the institutions in which courses in Bible are best established give no recognition to courses in the teaching of religion, thereby indicating that there is not a high correlation between high standards of Biblical instruction and the provision of courses in religious education.

SUMMARY AND TOTALS

By referring to Table I the following conclusions may be drawn: 172 institutions in 36 states during the year 1925-1926 provided 657 courses in religious education, totaling 1811 hours. The total undergraduate enrollment in these courses, not excluding duplications, was 10,389. By computing the medians of the three columns in Table I it is possible to get a picture of the "average" institution, which of course does not exist.¹⁴

13. Preliminary Report of the Committee on Standardization of Biblical Departments in Colleges and Universities, *Religious Education*, XIX (December, 1924), 408-10.

14. The five institutions with extensive schools of religious education—Auburn, Boston, Hartford, Northwestern, and Scarritt—have been excluded from these computations, although their inclusion would make little difference in the results.

Among those colleges which offered any instruction in religious education at all in 1925-1926, the average institution gave 2.8 courses, totaling 6.5 semester hours, with an average enrollment of 13 students in each course.¹⁵

It is clear that religious education occupies a comparatively small place in the undergraduate curriculum. Thirty per cent of the 172 institutions included in this survey offer only one course in religious education; 56 per cent offer only one or two courses. In 42 per cent of these colleges less than five semester hours are provided during the year. In about 20 per cent of the institutions there are less than eight students enrolled per course.¹⁶

15. The median was computed for the average enrollment per course per institution.

16. Institutions whose work in religious education is wholly on a graduate basis have not been included in the survey. Columbia University, University of Chicago, Yale Divinity School, and other universities and seminaries fall within this category. The few undergraduate students who are enrolled in courses in religious education in these institutions are an exception to the general practice.

Several colleges which formerly had well-established courses in religious education were not offering work in 1925-1926, but expect to reopen the departments soon. Among these institutions are Berea, Ripon, and Kansas Wesleyan.

Of the few colleges from which no replies were received, the following announce the largest amount of work in religious education, but the figures could not be included in the tabulation:

Occidental College, California: 4 courses, 10 hours.
University of Dubuque, Iowa: 3 courses, 9 hours.
Kentucky Wesleyan, Kentucky: 6 courses.
Olivet College, Michigan: 5 courses, 11 hours.
Abilene Christian College, Texas: 9 courses.
Southern Methodist University, Texas: 5 courses, 13 hours.
Brigham Young University, Utah: 3 courses, 9 hours.

CHAPTER III

ORGANIZATION AND OBJECTIVES OF INSTRUCTION

HOW ARE COURSES IN RELIGIOUS EDUCATION RELATED TO OTHER COURSES IN THE CURRICULUM?

One of the most difficult problems of the college administrator in relation to religious education is to determine the place which these courses shall have in the curriculum. Shall enough courses be given to establish a department of religious education? If not, with what other courses shall religious education be combined? What shall be the name of the department? A detailed study of the questionnaires and of the catalogues of the responding institutions has been made, in order to discover what are the current policies of administrators in this respect.

SCHOOLS OF RELIGION OR RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

There are four institutions which were established primarily to provide professional training in religious education. The oldest of these is the Hartford School of Religious Education at Hartford, Connecticut. The institution in its present form had its origin in 1902, although it grew out of an earlier school established in 1885. The course of study leading to the degree of Bachelor of Religious Education is open to those who present credits for at least two years' work in a college or normal school of recognized standing. The courses of the undergraduate department are arranged under six divisions, of which the following include work specifically in religious education: Psychology, Education, Practics.

The School of Religious Education and Social Service of Boston University was established in 1918. It offers the most

extensive work in religious education for undergraduates in the United States. Its courses are arranged in sixteen groups or departments, three of which—Psychology and Pedagogy, Religious Education, and The Fine Arts in Religion—include work which may be called religious education in the restricted sense. Although some courses are available for undergraduates, students are not expected to take much work in religious education until their Junior and Senior years.

The Auburn School of Religious Education was established in 1921 as a part of Auburn Theological Seminary, Auburn, New York. Students are admitted as candidates for the bachelor's degree after having had at least one year of college work; most of the students, however, enter the Junior or Senior class. The distinctively religious educational courses are included within three departments—Psychology and Social Science, Religious Education, and The Fine Arts in Religion.

Scarritt College for Christian Workers represents the outgrowth of a missionary training school, formerly located at Kansas City, Missouri. In 1924 it was made into a college and moved to Nashville, Tennessee. Students are accepted after their sophomore year in college and two years are required for the A.B. degree. Scarritt is, therefore, primarily a senior teachers' college of religion. The Department of Religious Education is one of several divisions of the college.

Among the schools of religion may be classed the Colleges of the Bible, a unique development in American education fostered by the Disciples of Christ. These Colleges are really schools for ministerial training, closely affiliated with undergraduate institutions and offering both

undergraduate and graduate courses. The curriculum of these schools is similar to that of a theological seminary. Religious education occupies a very prominent place in all of the Colleges of the Bible. Four of these institutions now offer a major in religious education, namely, those affiliated with Drake University, Transylvania College, Phillips University, and Texas Christian University.

The School of Religion of the University of Southern California falls in the same category. This school has recently been reorganized so that it includes both undergraduate and graduate work in religion. Students who have attained the rank of Junior are admitted to the School of Religion. In addition to the Department of Religious Education proper, several courses in religious education are given in the Department of Church Organization and Administration.

DEPARTMENTS IN SCHOOLS OF EDUCATION

A slightly different arrangement is found in the establishment of religious education courses as one department in a School of Education of a university. There are three institutions of this type at present: George Peabody Teachers College, Nashville, Tennessee, an independent institution; the University of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, an independent institution supported partly by the city of Pittsburgh and partly by state funds; and Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois. Until 1926 the work of religious education at Northwestern was a department of the Liberal Arts College of the university.

DEPARTMENTS OF RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

Among the many colleges that have departments of religious education there are comparatively few that provide sufficient work for a major specifically in the teaching of religion. Replies to the questionnaire were confusing on this point, be-

cause of the variety of uses of the term religious education. There are five institutions, besides those already mentioned, which undoubtedly give majors in religious education in the sense used in this survey: Denison University, Elon College (the department is called the School of Christian Education), Ohio Wesleyan University, Wittenberg College, and the University of Chattanooga. It is possible that Centenary College of Louisiana and several others might be added to this list. Cedar Crest College, a girls' school at Allentown, Pennsylvania, also provides enough work for a major in religious education, although in its present stage of development it could scarcely be classed with the institutions previously enumerated. Duke University and Maryville College announce that they will offer majors in religious education beginning in 1927.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION IN STATE UNIVERSITIES

The most significant development of religious education courses at state universities has taken place at the University of Missouri. Here there is a Bible College, originally a Disciples' enterprise but now supported by interdenominational effort. There are five professors in the Bible College, one of whom devotes all of his time to religious education. The courses are credited in the University toward the degrees of B. S. in Education and B. S. in Social Service. This Bible College is virtually accepted as the department of religion of the university.¹

In most of the remaining seven state institutions the courses in religious education are given by student pastors or ministers of the neighboring communities. The Y. M. C. A. Secretary at Kansas State Agricultural College gives a course in religious education "as an extra at the request of the local ministerial union in

1. Cf. article by Prof. D. E. Thomas, "The Co-operative School of Religion in Practice," *Religious Education*, April, 1927, pp. 335-336.

agreement with the administration of the college."

Wesley College holds a unique relationship to the state institutions of North Dakota. It has two branches, one affiliated with the Agricultural College at Fargo, and the other with the State University at Grand Forks. Courses in religious education are given at both places. Wesley College grants its own degrees, but its students may get university credit for their work. Eugene Bible University is an institution of the Disciples affiliated with the University of Oregon. It gives a number of courses in religious education which may be elected by students of the university.

NAMES OF DEPARTMENTS

Seventeen institutions have been named as giving majors specifically in religious education. In the remainder of the colleges courses in religious education are combined with other subjects. Table IV lists the names of the departments to which these courses are attached. About two-fifths of these departments are called "Religious Education," but they usually include courses in Bible and related religious subjects. In the majority of the institutions which replied, it is possible for a student to major in Bible and Religious Education. In a fairly large number of colleges the courses in religious education are attached to the department of education; in a few cases they are linked up with psychology and ethics or sociology.

PROBLEMS OF POLICY

Two outstanding problems face the administrator in the disposition of courses in religious education in the ordinary situation where there is no specialized school. First is the issue whether a department should be created. The Joint Commission on Religious Education in Colleges pointed out in its report in 1921 the danger of re-grouping certain already

TABLE IV
TITLES OF DEPARTMENTS

The names of the departments to which courses in Religious Education are attached and the frequency with which they occur are as follows:

Religious Education	65
Bible and Religious Education.....	16
Bible	13
Education	12
Religion	10
Biblical History and Literature.....	6
College of the Bible.....	5
Biblical Literature and Religious Education	4
Biblical Literature	3
Christianity	3
English Bible	3
Bible and Philosophy	2
Bible and Religion	2
Christian Education	2
Psychology and Education.....	2
Applied Christian Education.....	1
Bible and Sunday School Methods.....	1
Biblical Literature and Church History...	1
Biblical Literature and Philosophy	1
Bible, Religious Education, and Ethics....	1
Christian Leadership and Social Service...	1
Education and Religion	1
Education and Religious Education	1
English Bible and Religion	1
English Bible and Religious Education ...	1
Philosophy and Religious Education.....	1
Philosophy, Sociology, and Religious Education	1
Psychology and Pedagogy	1
Psychology and Religious Education	1
Psychology and Social Science	1
Religion and Missions	1
Religion and Philosophy	1
School of Religion	1
Sociology	1
Courses attached to more than one department in institution.....	7

existing courses and calling them "Religious Education":²

"Our recommendation concerns a new branch of study with specific aims and subject matter of its own, together with a new approach to certain older subjects."

Religious education certainly requires special training and deserves separate attention. On the other hand, college administrators are recognizing today that the curriculum has been over-departmentalized. There has been a lateral subdivision of subject-matter; the tendency now is toward simplification of the curriculum and a grouping of courses on a more

2. Brown, A. A., *A History of Religious Education in Recent Times*, Abingdon Press, pp. 247-253.

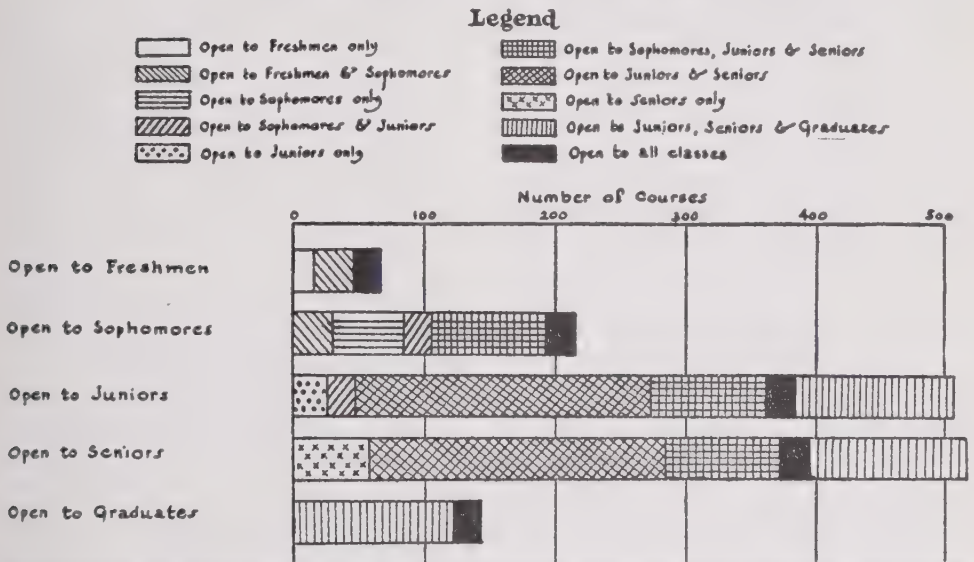
nearly functional basis to meet the needs of students. It has been suggested that courses in religious education might be correlated with courses in other departments, such as educational psychology, history of education, and biblical literature, so as to pay attention to the implication of these studies for religious education without unnecessary duplication.

between religious education and general education. The latter viewpoint is represented by a professor who states that the work in religious education in his institution is in a process of reorganization:

"I am inclined to build it (religious education) first into a respectable department of education and psychology, until such time as religious education can be given an individual autonomy. While some colleges tuck it away

Diagram 2

NUMBER OF COURSES IN RELIGIOUS EDUCATION WHICH ARE OPEN TO MEMBERS OF SEVERAL CLASSES



The principle underlying this proposal deserves consideration, regardless of the administrative difficulties involved.

Again, there is the question whether the interests of religious education are better served if these courses are closely related to the department of Bible or to the department of education. Many are insisting that methods should not be divorced from content and that courses dealing with the teaching of religion lose greatly in value unless they are integrally related to a study of the Bible and other religious materials. But there are others who are especially sensitive to the kinship

SUMMARY OF DIAGRAM 2
CLASSES TO WHICH COURSES ARE OPEN

Freshmen only	15	courses
Sophomores only	54	"
Freshmen and Sophomores.....	30	"
Juniors only	26	"
Sophomores and Juniors.....	21	"
Seniors only	58	"
Juniors and Seniors.....	227	"
Sophomores, Juniors, and Seniors	88	"
Open to all classes.....	22	"
Open to upperclassmen and graduates	123	"
	664	

in a department of Bible, we prefer to place it in education. We have not been able to trust

religious education in the Bible department."

As to terminology, there is considerable value in the contention that, if Bible, religious education, and kindred subjects are to be included in one department, the most accurate term to use is the "Department of Religion."

ACADEMIC REGULATIONS

Scarcely any work in religious education is required for graduation. Only 32 out of the total 657 courses were designated as "required" by the respondents, and these are offered either in small colleges or in the special schools for professional training. When students major in the department, certain definite courses must be taken. Occasionally students are required to choose courses either in Bible or in religious education in order to meet the regulations for graduation.

Information was gathered concerning the classes to which the courses in religious education are open. Diagram 2 summarizes the facts. The tendency is clearly to regard courses in the teaching of religion as primarily for upper classmen, and even as partly of graduate calibre. The proportion of courses open to Juniors and Seniors in relation to those open to Freshmen and Sophomores is about four to one. The proportion of exclusively undergraduate courses to those which may be taken also by graduates is again about four to one. Only eight junior colleges reported giving courses in religious education.

TO WHAT EXTENT DOES THIS INSTRUCTION REPRESENT PROFESSIONAL TRAINING?

Is undergraduate instruction in religious education organized so as to fit into the purpose and curriculum of the liberal arts college? Or does it represent an effort to provide vocational preparation? Pre-professional training is a moot question today, and it is interesting to

examine the results of the survey on this point.

VOCATIONAL DEGREES AND CREDITS

Three institutions reported that they were granting the degree of Bachelor of Religious Education in 1925-1926. These were Boston University, Auburn School of Religious Education, and Hartford School of Religious Education. It was reported that beginning in 1926 Temple University had instituted a four-year course in religious education, leading to the B. R. E. degree.

The catalogue of Boston University School of Religious Education describes in some detail the purpose of establishing this special bachelor's degree. The policy was adopted largely because of the inadequate preparation with which college graduates usually entered the School of Religious Education. It was necessary either to give them a year or two of undergraduate work in a graduate school or to follow the example of engineering and medical schools and reach down into the undergraduate field. "Just as the Bachelor of Science degree provides the essential liberal cultural courses with a group of rich courses in physical and biological sciences, so the Bachelor of Religious Education and the Bachelor of Social Science degrees provide all the essentials of the historic baccalaureate plus an introduction to the fields of religion and social science which will furnish rich background for graduate work in these fields."³ The faculty of the Boston University School regard their undergraduate work in religious education as a part of a liberal rather than a professional education. "The graduate degrees of this school are *professional* degrees; its baccalaureate degrees are *cultural* degrees."

Auburn School of Religious Education aims to be primarily a graduate school.

3. Boston University Bulletin, *Collegiate and Professional Training for Christian Leadership, 1926-1927*; also a pamphlet, *Standardizing Religious Education as a New Profession*.

"The advantages of a broad general education for those who are to be leaders in the field of religious education are so great that it is strongly urged that the full college course be completed before entering the school. It is expected that this will ultimately be required of all, save in exceptional cases."⁴

Apparently, then, the creating of a special baccalaureate degree does not necessarily imply a vocational purpose in the undergraduate courses. There are other provisions at several institutions, however, which represent a professional bent. At least two colleges included in the survey grant a professional option in the fourth year; that is, the student may elect to apply the first year in his professional school upon his course for the bachelor's degree in the college. These are Transylvania and Wittenberg Colleges. Students are urged not to cut short their liberal arts course, however, except in case of unusual need. The term, "professional major," is used in the Transylvania College catalogue in referring to the two years of specialized work in religious education. At Elon College religious education has a definite professional standing. Students who have successfully completed five courses in the School of Christian Education at Elon College are admitted to second year standing for their divinity work at Vanderbilt Divinity School, Union Theological Seminary, Richmond, Va., and at the Boston University School of Religious Education. Similarly, credit for work done at Howard College, Birmingham, Alabama, in religious education is accepted by the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary, when this work covers the same ground.

A number of institutions give diplomas or certificates in religious education for undergraduate work. These awards usually represent less than a full college course. For example, the following statement appears in the catalogue of Witten-

berg College: "To meet the constantly increasing demand for teachers of religion for Weekday Schools of Religion, Daily Vacation Bible Schools, and other agencies of the church and community, a two years' course in religious education leading to a certificate has been established." At least sixty semester hours of work are required for this certificate. Auburn School of Religious Education awards a Teacher's Diploma and a Director's Diploma for the completion of specified courses of study, independent of the academic degrees. Transylvania College offers courses leading to a One- and a Two-year Certificate in Religious Education.

Frequently, especially in the southern colleges, denominational certificates are given for the completion of certain requirements. At least fourteen institutions reported such an arrangement with the Methodist Episcopal, South, Sunday School Board. At Birmingham-Southern College, for example, a certificate, Graduate in Religious Education, is awarded in cooperation with this Methodist Sunday School Board through its department of Teacher Training. Twenty-four semester hours are prescribed by the Board, 14 of which are in the specific field of the teaching of religion. The Sunday School Board of the Southern Baptist Church has a somewhat similar arrangement with its colleges. In a number of colleges it was reported that credit is given on the Standard Teacher Training course in conjunction with courses taken in the department of religious education.

An unusual relationship between the work in religious education and the state Department of Education was established at Denison University in 1926. For those who are working toward a state teacher's certificate, the State Board of Education has agreed to grant three hours' credit toward the certificate for the course in Methods of Teaching Re-

4. *Auburn Seminary Record*, Feb. 10, 1927, p. 66.

ligion and to recognize the supervised teaching in the Weekday Schools of Religion as meeting the requirements for practice teaching.

EXPRESSED AIMS OF LEADERS

One approach to the question of the place of vocational training in the undergraduate curriculum may be made through a study of the aims of courses in religious education. Many statements of purpose have been gathered from catalogues and from letters of professors. Most of them may be grouped around the issue of cultural versus vocational objectives in religious education.

Those who advocate definite professional training in the college base their judgment largely upon the policy already adopted in regard to public-school teachers.

"The average denominational or church college has in reality become a teachers' college, preparing from 75 to 90 per cent of its students for the teaching profession. Is it not the duty of the church college to prepare workers for the church as well as workers for the public school?"

"The School seeks to fill the same place in the training of religious teachers that the high-class professional school holds in the training of secular teachers."

"I am confident that the college can and ought to train some of our professional workers. I urge all of my students to go to a graduate school at the earliest possible time. But—I think we ought to be able in sixteen years [grades, high school, and college] to bring students to the point that they can participate in religious work and be justified in drawing a salary for it. The college is undertaking to train teachers for elementary school and high school. I think it can train teachers for weekday religious education and certain work in churches."

Other professors are not convinced that a college should give extensive courses in religious education.

"As this is not a graduate school, we have deemed this a sufficient number of hours [six], considering it more important that an undergraduate should have a foundation in Biblical History and Literature and the Philosophy of Religion.—I think the student should wait until his graduate work to make more specific study in Religious Education."

"The one course in religious education is

simply to meet the need of a few students who want to do some religious education work as a side line to another profession."

There is also a distinct difference of opinion as to the extent to which college courses should give a foundation for graduate work in religious education. Some men regard this as one of the primary aims of the department.

"To provide undergraduate instruction leading to graduate work on the part of students aspiring to become teachers of religious education, or expert directors of religious education."

"To lay a foundation for graduate work, which must be taken if a student is to become a professional worker in this field."

"The aim is to give a training which will provide a suitable foundation for any specialization necessary for actual leadership."

In other cases there is a feeling that the student who intends to enter professional religious work can take courses in the college which will be of more value than religious education.

"More and more I am becoming convinced that students who intend to become professionals in any of these lines should take only a minimum in these fields during undergraduate days."

"The theological seminaries do not encourage ministerial students to take much work in our department, so that our enrollment is not made up of such men."

"When a student tells me [said a professor of religious education in a seminary] that he has taken courses in religious education in college, I always wonder what basic courses in sociology, biology, etc., he missed thereby. I would much prefer that he had a good general background in undergraduate work than that he should have taken special courses in religious education."

On one aim of undergraduate instruction in religious education, however, there is general agreement: that students should develop an interest in educational work in the local church and community, and should be prepared for volunteer work in church schools.

"I seek to return students to their churches and communities with right attitudes and technique to participate in the agencies of organized religion with a vital conviction and constructive interest."

"I urge the fact that these young people are to be heads of families, members of churches and citizens of communities where there is

great ignorance about both religion and education, and that each should become a leader in helping to organize and carry forward this great work in local communities."

"One of the most valuable things we can do is to get prospective public-school teachers to take these courses, since they will, with little additional training, make very capable workers in our Church Schools."

"To prepare students to assume definite responsibilities in the work of religious education in their own home churches on a volunteer basis."

A number of professors express what may be called the "cultural" aims of courses in religious education. The terms "insight," "appreciation" and "integration" are the key notes in these statements.

"To provide an insight into the need and possibilities of religious education for many college students who may never become leaders in religious education, but who may, nevertheless, thus obtain a wider vision and develop a livelier interest in religion."

"To develop an intelligent appreciation of the importance of religious education, and an understanding of the recent most significant developments of the movement."

"To make known in a vivid way the manifold processes by which Christian character is developed;—to develop a synthetic appreciation of the significance of leadership in the building of Christian character."

"Religious education, as it seems to me, ought to integrate the whole life on an intelligent application of the Golden Rule. I want religious education to become so revolutionary in Sunday School, in Church and College, that it will transform the whole philosophy of life from exclusive and compulsory, to inclusive and co-operative attitudes."

"What it does is to make him conscious of certain large problems of the church and of society, to awaken his interest in them and to give him a measure of skill in some of the processes that may help toward their solution."

Essentially the same viewpoint is expressed by a student who was asked to state the value to him of courses in religious education:

"They fit one for an effective service to the church in college days and after graduation. They give a broader outlook on life, a better understanding of the true purpose of the church and how it may be worked out, a deeper insight into child and adolescent life, and thus a better understanding of ourselves. They teach us a new conception of the church and the Christian life. They make Christianity seem a real, live, growing thing, very usable and workable. They present a challenge both

to our own living and to the teaching of the younger generation. They can have a great effect on the student's life and his future usefulness, even though he never teaches a Sunday school class or leads definitely in other religious work."

HOW MUCH RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

In the face of these varying practices and conflicting aims, is it possible to find any basis for agreement? The puzzling question still remains, How much religious education should be offered to undergraduates? A brief glance at some significant developments in the general field of higher education may throw light on these questions, for the problem of professional training has received much attention from educators in recent years.

For one thing, it has been pointed out that there is need to distinguish between the various "levels" of a profession.⁵ As professions develop, they tend to be differentiated into lower, middle, and higher levels, involving different degrees of knowledge and skill. In the field of law, for example, there is the clerk, the general practitioner, and the jurist. In establishing professional schools heretofore only the highest levels of the professions have been considered. Educators are realizing now that different types of curricula are desirable, each designed for a particular level. More attention is being given to schools of less advanced character than the university, where provision is made for the training of workers who do not need the highest degree of skill and do not have exceptional ability.⁷ In the reply of a college professor there is a hint concerning the presence of levels within the profession of religious education:

"To prepare professional leadership for religious education for the lower positions, such

5. Heisey, P. H., "Religious Education Courses in the College Curriculum," *Religious Education*, January, 1927, p. 47.

6. Leonard, R. J., "Trends in Professional Education," *Teachers College Record*, November, 1924; "Professional Education in Junior Colleges," *Teachers College Record*, May, 1925.

7. Seashore, C. E., "Education for Democracy and the Junior College," *School and Society*, April 23, 1927.

as teachers in the Church School, Vacation Church School, and Weekday Church School."

On the higher level might be placed directors of religious education, college teachers of religious education, and denominational secretaries. If these levels were clearly recognized, it is quite possible that the college might legitimately prepare teachers for elementary and secondary work in religious education.

Again, it must be noted that there is a distinct trend toward shortening the period of professional preparation. It is being freely advocated that the training for a profession may well begin after the first two years of college; many colleges have in effect followed this trend by their system of majors which begin with the Junior year. Other administrators are standing firmly for the traditional four-year liberal arts college. This fact explains the difference of viewpoint expressed regarding the place of religious education in the undergraduate course.

Is there after all a valid distinction between "cultural" and "professional"? Prof. Dewey has pointed out that there is nothing inherent in professional studies which prevents them from being cultural, but that the important element is the method and spirit in which the study is carried on. It is possible to "unite the seriousness, unity of purpose and skill of the professional with the breadth and freedom of thought and desire characteristic of the amateur."⁸ If the aim of the professor of religious education is not to train technicians but to help his students know the field in all its bearings, there need be little alarm that courses in religious education will destroy any essential values of the liberal arts curriculum.⁹

It may not be possible to establish

widely a "standard" department of religious education, as was attempted by the Commission in 1921. The type and amount of undergraduate instruction in religious education will vary with the institution. The schools of religious education and the universities which have a special interest in training religious leaders will continue to offer a large number of courses, both for graduates and undergraduates. Certain colleges that have endowments for this particular purpose, like Elon, Wittenberg and Maryville, along with several of the Colleges of the Bible of the Disciples, will be able to provide unusual facilities in religious education, including the training of teachers in the positions which require less advanced knowledge. The community in which an institution is situated is an important factor. In some states weekday religious education has advanced rapidly, and there is an increasing demand for professional workers; in other regions the demand is small. The analogy drawn between the training of public-school teachers and religious leaders is sound in principle, but needs to be modified in practice to the extent that religious education is not yet looked upon as an established profession.

A great many colleges, probably the majority, will not have the resources to provide a department of religious education, but will consider it essential to have one or two courses throughout the year which will provide an introduction to the field. These courses will be attached either to the department of education or to the department of Bible or religion, depending upon the training of the available professors and the genius of the institution. One college president writes thus concerning his plans:

"I am striving to have religious education attached to the department of education, and to have some teacher of education offer one or more courses in religious education. This plan will avoid duplication. It seems to me that what we should do is to make use of the

8. Dewey, John, "Culture and Professionalism in Education," *Proceedings of Association of American University Professors*, December, 1923.

9. Cf. description of the principle underlying the N. Y. Ethical Culture School, "A Teacher Forges New Tools," H. W. Smith, *Survey Graphic*, June, 1927, pp. 255-258.

resources of the department of education and then have one or more courses applying the principles so learned to the special problems of religious education."

In April, 1927, a conference of college administrators and instructors in religious education in the Disciples' colleges was held to discuss the place of a department of religious education in a college curriculum. Their findings are significant of a tendency to check an expansion of the work of religious education beyond the limits of sound educational procedure:

"We recommend that the colleges of the brotherhood defer from offering adequate professional training for religious vocations, and that this training be conceded to those institutions, in our own brotherhood and elsewhere, that are equipped to offer graduate and professional degrees to religious workers.—We find further that it seems to be the judgment of the group that the amount of work in religious education for which credit toward the A. B. degree may be given should not exceed a synthetic major of approximately fifteen hours in methods courses, and approximately nine hours in the Bible and related courses."¹⁰

At the same conference a professor expressed his judgment concerning the place of the undergraduate department of religious education in terms which, while not applicable to a small number of specialized schools which offer undergraduate work, are suggestive of the viewpoint of many leaders in the field:

"The undergraduate department will not train specialists. It will rather seek to give to many students an understanding and appreciation of the principles underlying religious education and of their place in building a bet-

ter society, and it will provide a limited amount of training for service in this field. To a smaller number of students the college will make possible what might be termed a pre-professional course that will lay the foundation for more specialized graduate work should they desire to secure further professional training."

Whether or not undergraduate courses in religious education are of value for those who intend to become professional leaders in the church depends largely upon the nature of the courses. If these courses really introduce the student to concrete situations involving problems of education and religion, they are bound to stimulate his graduate work. It is difficult to see how one can make an intelligent decision concerning religious education as his life-work unless he has had such an introduction.

In enumerating the groups that may be served by undergraduate instruction in religious education, it is strange that scarcely any attention is called to those preparing to teach in the public schools. In a day when moral education is being stressed in the schools and when the need of better integration between religious education and public-school education is being recognized, surely it is valuable for teachers and administrators to gain an understanding of the principles and practice of the teaching of religion. Independent and denominational colleges have an unusual opportunity to serve both the state and the church by enabling public-school teachers to know more about religion and religious education.

10. Huff, A. LeRoy, "Religious Education in the College Course," *Religious Education*, May, 1927, p. 485.

11. Powell, W. E., "The Undergraduate Department of Religious Education," *Religious Education*, May, 1927, p. 488.

CHAPTER IV

THE INSTRUCTORS AND THEIR TRAINING

The quality of instruction is dependent to a large extent on the preparation of the teachers. The methods used in the classroom and the religious viewpoint of the instructor are partly determined by the educational and religious philosophy of the institutions where the teachers received their training. A study of the preparation of those who teach religious education in American colleges is, therefore, of more than ordinary significance. Information was secured concerning both the academic and the professional training of teachers. Although the brevity of the questionnaire prevented the gathering of certain facts that would have been valuable, enough data are at hand to show general tendencies.

A LIST OF TEACHERS

A list of 207 professors and instructors, together with the institutions where they teach, is printed in Appendix A. This list is more accurate than the catalogues for the academic year 1925-1926, for later correspondence revealed the fact that at least twenty-five teachers had changed positions since the issuing of the catalogues. Since "religious education" includes courses in Bible in the minds of many of the respondents, it was difficult to determine in some cases which instructors were teaching religious education in the stricter sense. Replies on this point were received from more than ninety per cent of the 172 institutions which are included in the survey.

ACADEMIC STATUS

An effort was made to discover how many teachers are giving all of their time to religious education. Here, again, the varied use of the term confused the replies. So far as it is possible to interpret the answers to this section of the ques-

tionnaire, 34 professors and instructors are full-time teachers of religious education. This is a small proportion of the total, only sixteen per cent. Moreover, of this number 21 are teachers in the five institutions that may be called special training schools: Boston University, Northwestern University, Hartford School of Religious Education, Auburn School of Religious Education, and Scarritt College for Christian Workers. Evidently, in the other colleges it is unusual to have a professor devoting full time to the theory and practice of teaching religion. The other courses which he is likely to teach are in the related fields of Bible, history of religions, psychology of religion, and Christian ethics. In 45 cases the teacher was reported to have the title of Professor of Religious Education and Bible. Occasionally the person who teaches religious education spends the remainder of his time in courses in general education or psychology.

One hundred and thirty-five teachers were reported to have the rank of professor, associate professor, or assistant professor. Allowing for a small proportion of failures to reply, one may conclude that two-thirds of those teaching undergraduate courses in religious education have professorial rank.

ACADEMIC TRAINING

It is important to know how much graduate work these teachers have completed, regardless of the field in which they specialized. This information was gathered in terms of degrees, although it is fully recognized that degrees vary widely in significance. The results of the inquiry are tabulated in Table V, in which all the degrees beyond the baccalaureate are listed separately. Informa-

TABLE V
ADVANCED DEGREES HELD BY
TEACHERS

Ph. D.	45
Th. D.	6
S. T. D.	1
Ed. D.	1
Ph. D. and S. T. D.	1
S. T. M.	2
Th. M.	5
Ph. M.	2
M. A.	46
M. R. E.	5
B. D.	19
S. T. B.	8
M. A. and B. D.	25
M. A. and M. R. E.	2
B. D. and M. R. E.	2
M. A. and S. T. B.	1
M. A., B. D. and M. R. E.	2
M. A., B. D., and S. T. B.	1
Bachelor's degree only.	28
Total	202

tion was secured from 202 of the 207 teachers listed in Appendix A. In the table all duplications are excluded. Usually one who holds a doctor's degree also received a master's degree, and frequently the Bachelor of Divinity degree, but only the highest degree is recorded here. The various combinations of degrees are also listed separately. By a further analysis of the table the following conclusions can be drawn: 174 teachers of religious education in American colleges, or 86 per cent of the total, have earned degrees beyond the baccalaureate; 120, or 60 per cent, hold master's degrees or theological baccalaureate degrees, representing from one to three years of graduate study; 54, or 27 per cent, hold academic doctor's degrees, representing usually three or more years of graduate work. Only one teacher in seven has no degree higher than the bachelor's; usually this is the A. B. degree, but occasionally it is a B. S. or B. R. E.

The actual number of years spent in graduate study is even higher than the table indicates, because many teachers report work in graduate institutions which did not lead to a degree. Among the 124 who replied to a second query, six re-

ported that they are now working toward the Ph. D. degree, two toward a D. R. E., one toward an M. A., and one toward an M. R. E.

So far as academic training is concerned, the teacher of religious education in undergraduate institutions appears in a remarkably favorable light. Although comparative figures are not at hand, it is to be doubted whether the instructors in any other field of collegiate study would average as many years of graduate work. One large element in this situation is the fact that the majority of teachers of religious education have come to this field by way of the theological seminary. The statement of one of the professors who replied at some length is not without statistical support: "In a number of church colleges the professor of Religious Education is the best trained man on the faculty."

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

There is an even more important question to be raised, however: How much professional training have these teachers of religious education received? The possession of a Ph. D. degree may not be of significance for the teaching of religious education, nor is a complete course in a theological seminary always a guarantee of effective leadership in the educational field. A second inquiry was sent to the professors and instructors, asking how much specific training they had in religious education, and at what institutions their study was carried on. The failure of many respondents to confine their answer to "specific" training made complete tabulation impossible, but certain significant trends can be discerned. One hundred and twenty-four teachers replied to this second communication. They are so widely distributed that they may be considered representative of the entire group.

Table VI summarizes the data concerning the institutions where professors re-

TABLE VI
INSTITUTIONS WHERE TEACHERS
RECEIVED PROFESSIONAL
TRAINING

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Degrees Granted</i>	<i>Individuals</i>
Boston University—Ph.D., 3; M.A., 3; M.R.E., 8; S.T.M., 2; S.T.B., 5; no degree, 5		23
University of Chicago—Ph.D., 2; A.M., 3; Ph.M., 2; A.M., 3; Ph.M., 2; no degree, 14		20
Columbia University—Ph.D., 5; M.A., 6; no degree, 10		20
Northwestern University—Ph.D., 5; M.A., 8; no degree, 5		17
Yale University—M.A., 1; B.D., 7; no degree, 2		10
Union Seminary, N. Y.—B.D., 3; no degree, 6		9
Chicago Divinity School—M.A., 1; B.D., 3; no degree, 5		8
University of Iowa—Ph.D., 4; M.A., 1; no degree, 1		6
Southern Baptist Seminary—Th.D., 4; Th.M., 3; no degree, 1		6
Princeton Seminary—Th.M., 1; B.D., 2; no degree, 3		6
Hartford Seminary Foundation—Ph.D., 1; B.D., 1; no degree, 3		5
Harvard University—Ph.D., 1; M.A., 1; no degree, 2		4
Garrett Biblical Institute—B.D., 2; S.T.B., 1; no degree, 1		4
McCormick Seminary—B.D., 3		3
Emory University—M.A., 1; B.D., 1; no degree, 1		3
Southern Methodist University—no degree, 3		3
Transylvania College—M.A., 1; no degree, 2		3
Rochester Seminary—B.D., 1; no degree, 1		2
University of Pennsylvania—Ph.D., 1; M.A., 1		2
Denver University—Ph.D., 1; no degree, 1		2

ceived their special training in religious education and the degrees which were given. When Boston University is cited, the reference is usually to the School of Religious Education and Social Service, and when Columbia University is mentioned, it may be assumed that most of the work was taken at Teachers College. Among graduates of Boston University the degrees of M.R.E. and S.T.B. predominate, while at the University of Chicago, Columbia University and Northwestern University the degrees of Ph.D. and M.A. are practically

the only ones given. It is interesting to note the relatively important place which a tax-supported institution, the University of Iowa, has had in the training of leaders in religious education. The first seven institutions in the list are nationally known as centers for graduate study in religious education. The interdenominational character of these graduate schools is indicated by the following facts: those who have studied at the University of Chicago are teaching in institutions affiliated with nine denominations; at Boston University, with eight denominations; at Columbia University, with seven denominations; and at Northwestern and Yale Universities, with six denominations. If complete records were available, this interdenominational tendency would doubtless be still more marked.

Of the 124 teachers who replied concerning their professional training, only 36 made no mention of attending a theological school. Some of these probably spent some time in a theological seminary also, but did not consider it a part of their specific training in religious education. It is fair to say that approximately three out of four professors in religious education in American colleges have had a complete or partial theological training. Ten of the 36 who made no report of such study are women. Women teachers are, of course, less likely to have attended a theological school than men. These figures support the common assumption that those who teach religious education in colleges usually have special training in religious literature and theology.

Few would maintain, however, that these teachers have had as extended a preparation in the educational phases of their work as they have had in the subject matter of religion. In so new a field as religious education it is inevitable that many teachers, especially the older men, should have gained whatever special training they have in the school of ex-

perience rather than from graduate study. Nineteen of the 124 who replied stated that they had no specific professional training in religious education; many more probably would make the same admission if they answered the question with full accuracy. The following quotations illustrate the type of preparation which many professors of religious education have had, some of them leaders in the field:

"In accordance with earlier ideals my preparation for teaching was in Bible, with side interests in philosophy and sociology.—Throughout my teaching career, however, I have kept in close touch with developments, and have 'grown up with the subject,' so to speak."

"My formal preparation in religious education consisted of such courses and practice as Yale offered in 1905-1908. That, of course, was not much."

"It was before the day of instruction in 'Religious Education' in theological seminaries (1899.) Thus my work in religious education has had to be dug out of actual experience and experiment, years of study, observation, and wide reading."

"You will observe that much of my record antedates Religious Education as a modern science."

"My professional training in religious education was not acquired in schools. Practical work in the field gave me experience twelve years ago which brought me into this work. None of the courses I am teaching were given before I undertook to develop them."

"No formal study in religious education. When I graduated (college 1883, theological seminary 1886) the 'critter' wasn't born. My studies have been informal, including dozens of committees, conferences, and commissions where the discussions and problems were educational in high degree."

"Have spent many years in the pastorate, and more than eight years as a director of religious education in a large eastern church. This practical experience is worth several semesters in any training school."

The value of practical training outside of schools can scarcely be overestimated, and it is to be hoped that in their own teaching these men do not lose sight of the important role which experience plays in the development of leaders. The value of this practical work is only potential, however; much depends upon the way in

which one reflects upon his experience and analyzes his successes and failures. "Experience" frequently develops a habit of following ruts instead of an ability to chart new paths. All would agree, therefore, that the ideal preparation combines practical experience with study under competent leaders. The desire for such special professional training in religious education is strong. The replies to the questionnaire indicate that the majority of teachers are aware of the need for more than a training that would fit them for the pastorate; and the figures cited show that a large proportion of professors have already secured a thorough acquaintance with educational theory and method.

Occasionally in this field, as in any other, the preparation of teachers is far from adequate. A teacher in a junior college writes:

"For three years I have taught a class in Sunday School Pedagogy one hour per week. My preparation consisted of a course in Old Testament History three hours per week at _____ College."

A number of other replies show that the main interest of many teachers is the Bible and that they are carrying a course in religious education as a side issue, with no thought of developing the field. One teacher writes:

"I do not like to answer your question, for I do not count myself really trained for religious education class work. I do it because we have no real department in Religious Education. My department is Bible. I hope we may very soon have a thoroughly equipped teacher in Religious Education."

This teacher has had some training at the University of Chicago, Union Seminary, and Columbia University; yet she does not consider herself equipped for the teaching of religious education. It is encouraging when such high standards are set, and an indication that the teaching of religious education in colleges is developing rapidly to a point where definite professional preparation will be required.

CHAPTER V

THE METHODS USED

Most of the facts which have been cited deal with undergraduate instruction in religious education in its broader relationships; the survey revealed also to some extent the way in which individual courses are organized, the materials that are included, and the methods that are used.

TITLES OF COURSES

The courses in religious education which are being given were tabulated according to titles. Account was taken of all except the smallest differences in designation. The total number of titles is about 200. Since many of the diversities are insignificant, practically all of the courses may be grouped as indicated in Table VII. The frequency with which these titles occur is shown.

TABLE VII

TITLES OF COURSES

(1) Organization and Administration of Religious Education; Organization and Supervision of the Church School; etc.	68
(2) Methods of Teaching Religion; Methods of Religious Education; Methods and Materials of Religious Education; Teaching the Christian Religion; Teacher Training; etc.	65
(3) Principles of Religious Education; Principles of Teaching Religion; Theory of Religious Education; etc.	61
(4) Religious Education; Christian Education; The Modern Sunday School; Sunday School Pedagogy; etc.	55
(5) Curriculum of Religious Education; Materials of Religious Education.	38
(6) Religious Education of Adolescents; Religious Education of Children; Elementary Methods in Teaching Religion; Young People's Work; etc.	32
(7) Psychology of Religion; Psychology of Religious Development; Psychology of Religious Experience; etc.	29
(8) Religious Development of Childhood and Youth; Psychology of Childhood; Psychology of Adolescence; etc.	26
(9) Introduction to Religious Education.	26
(10) Worship in the Church School; Educational Aspects of Worship; Fine Arts in Religion; Training in Worship; etc.	24

(11) Principles and Methods of Religious Education	18
(12) History of Religious Education.	14
(13) Practice Teaching in Religious Education; Supervision of Religious Education	12
(14) Leadership Training; Christian Leadership; etc.	12
(15) Use of the Bible in Religious Education; Teaching Values of the Bible; The Bible as a Textbook; etc.	9
(16) Pageantry and Dramatics; Educational Dramatics; etc.	8
(17) Story Telling in Religious Education	8
(18) Seminar in Religious Education; Research Problems; etc.	8
(19) Weekday Religious Education; Week-day and Vacation Schools.	6
(20) Social and Recreational Leadership.	4
(21) Agencies of Religious Education.	4
(22) Community Religious Education.	3
(23) Missionary Education; Education for World Service	3
(24) The Home (or the Family) and Religious Education	3
(25) The Survey in Religious Education.	2
(26) A National Program of Religious Education	2

It is clear from a comparison of statements in catalogues that too much significance cannot be attached to the title of a course. The content differs according to the aim and interests of the professor in charge. Sometimes a distinction is made between "Principles of Religious Education" and "Principles of Teaching Religion," the latter being equivalent to a course in methods. Where the institution offers only one course, it is likely to be called "Religious Education" and to include a general treatment of the whole field.

TYPICAL SEQUENCE OF COURSES

With due regard to the flexible use of titles, from the foregoing table it is possible to point out the major trends in the arrangement of courses in religious education within the institution. Some kind of introductory course dealing with Principles is by far the most frequent. This includes the titles in the third, fourth,

ninth and fourteenth groups. It has been previously stated¹ that the median number of courses per institution is 2.8. It can now be predicted that the second and third courses given in any college are likely to deal with Organization and Administration and Methods. If there is a fourth course, it will probably be concerned with the Curriculum. If additional courses are offered, they are likely to deal with the Religious Education of Children or of Adolescents, or with the more general Psychology of Religion. A course in History of Religious Education is another possibility. After that, special phases of the teaching of religion win a place in the curriculum.

This sequence illustrates the typical practice in American college and university instruction: first, principles laying a "foundation," then practice; first, a general consideration of all problems and groups, then specialization. The "psychological approach" which is so frequently advocated in books which deal with the teaching of religion has apparently had no appreciable effect upon the organization of courses in religious education in the college curriculum.

COMPARISON WITH 1921 COMMISSION REPORT

The content and titles of courses in religious education have undoubtedly been considerably influenced by the report of the Joint Commission of the Council of Church Boards of Education and the Sunday-School Council of Evangelical Denominations in 1921.² Substantially the same report was adopted also by the Religious Education Association. In two respects, however, those recommendations have not been followed as closely as might have been expected. A comparatively small number of colleges offer a separate course in the history of religious education, although often a historical survey is

included in courses on principles or organization. The number of colleges giving courses in the teaching values of the Bible is surprisingly small. Here, again, it may be assumed that the field is partly covered in other courses; but the emphasis upon the study of the Bible in many denominational colleges would warrant an expectation of more definite treatment of the teaching values.

DENOMINATIONAL EMPHASES

Although detailed figures were not sought for other courses dealing with religion, certain general conclusions concerning variance in denominational viewpoints may be drawn. These generalizations are in substantial agreement with those made by Miss Beam in the survey carried on by the Council of Church Boards of Education.³ Miss Beam found that 11 per cent of the semester hours earned in religion by students in Methodist colleges were in the technique of religious education as against 2 per cent by students in Presbyterian colleges. From Diagram 1⁴ it will be seen that 48 percent of the colleges affiliated with the two Methodist groups offer courses in religious education as compared with 23 per cent of the colleges affiliated with the two major Presbyterian groups. An analysis of the number of courses given in the institutions of the two denominations shows that the Methodist colleges average about 4 courses per institution and the Presbyterian colleges approximately 2.5 courses. Both of these studies show that the Presbyterian institutions emphasize courses in Bible to a considerably greater degree than courses in the teaching of religion. This tendency, of course, is in harmony with the traditional Presbyterian emphasis. The statement of a professor in one of the Presbyterian colleges is typical:

"Our emphasis is entirely on the Bible department and for the present only incidentally on religious education as such."

1. See Page 19.

2. Brown, A. A., *A History of Religious Education in Recent Times*, pp. 246-253.

3. *Christian Education*, March, 1925, pp. 245-251.

4. See page 16.

It should be noted, however, that the northern Presbyterian colleges are engaged in an extension of offerings in religious education, of which Maryville College is an example.

A still greater contrast is presented by the colleges affiliated with the Congregational Church. No Congregational institution offers more than two courses in religious education, and the average number of courses per college is only 1.5. Probably this situation is to be partly explained by the characteristic cultural and philosophical emphases of the Congregational colleges.

The colleges affiliated with the Disciples of Christ rank highest in the proportionate emphasis on religious education, offering an average of five courses per institution. The colleges of the Friends represent approximately the same emphasis on religious education as the Methodist institutions. In percentage of courses per institution the Baptists rank between the Methodists and Presbyterians. The emphasis on religious education in Lutheran colleges is slight, with the exception of Wittenberg College. In several of these institutions the courses are entitled Catechetics, reflecting the Lutheran emphasis on doctrine.

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

It is difficult to secure adequate data on methods of instruction through so

brief a questionnaire as that used in this survey. Nevertheless the following table and diagram reveal certain significant trends:

TABLE VIII
METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

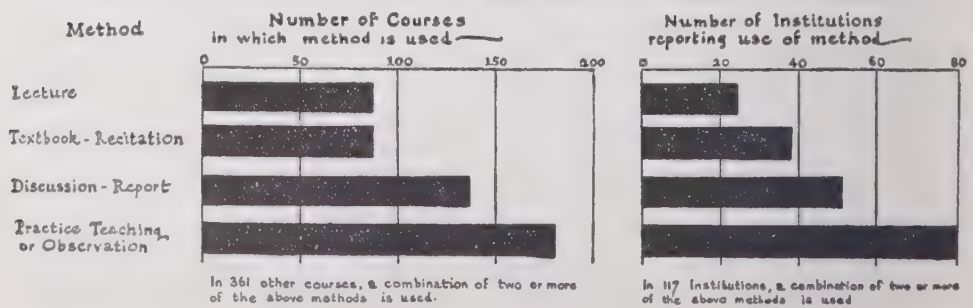
Method	No. of Institutions	No. of Courses
Lecture	24	86
Textbook-recitation	38	86
Discussion-report	51	135
Practice teaching or observation	80	181
Combination of methods.....	117	361

The first column of figures indicates the number of colleges in which each type of method was mentioned at least once. The second column shows the number of courses in which the several methods were reported to be used. Usually several methods are in use in the same college. The term "project" was not included in the list of methods, because it is subject to so wide a variety of uses.

It is recognized that a more careful analysis of instruction methods is needed before accurate conclusions can be drawn. "Combination of methods" includes so much that it is almost indeterminate. From the available data it seems clear, however, that the older methods of instruction are not being used extensively in courses in religious education. This does not imply necessarily that the newer

Diagram 3

TEACHING METHODS USED IN RELIGIOUS EDUCATION COURSES



methods are more effective, for scientific data concerning the results of the various procedures have not been gathered. But the discussion-report method or a combination of lecture, recitation, discussion and report are being used much more widely than uninterrupted lectures or an adherence to a textbook. The lecture method is being used even less widely than the table indicates, for 34 of the 86 courses in which lectures are given primarily were reported by one institution, Boston University School of Religious Education. The field of religious education is so new that few textbooks have been written for college use.⁵ This partly explains why there is less reliance upon the recitation method than in many other college courses. The returns on this point were not complete, but 108 courses in 89 colleges were reported to make no use of textbooks.

The large number of institutions making provision for practice teaching or observation is the most significant element in this section of the survey. Granted that in some cases the observation or supervision may be slight and superficial, it is remarkable that 181 courses were reported to include these provisions in 80 colleges. The courses which offer opportunities for practice and observation are usually in the field of method and child psychology, but occasionally they are courses in organization and administration. A few institutions give attention to practice teaching and supervision in separate courses.

LABORATORY FACILITIES

It is evident that an increasing number of teachers are regarding practice and observation as essential to the training of leaders in religious education. The following statement illustrates this viewpoint:

"The School of Religious Education and Social Service believes that all theory courses

should be accompanied by practical laboratory courses, and that all practice work, to be of value, should be under careful supervision."⁶

Dr. Klyver has given a detailed description of current practice (1923-1924) in the supervision of student-teachers in religious education in eight institutions: Ripon, Morningside, Ohio Wesleyan, University of Chattanooga, Earlham, Northwestern University, Muskingum, and Boston University.⁷ Of the many similar provisions for laboratory work in religious education in other institutions, a few additional descriptions must suffice.

Opportunities for observation and practice at Maryville College are outlined in the college bulletin.

"(1) The town of Maryville has successful week-day church schools in operation, and the churches responsible for them are planning a considerable extension of this work.—Opportunities are offered for observing this work, and for studying the problems involved. (2) Practically every type of Sabbath School is to be found within easy reach of the College.—Students may work in some of these schools, and in all of them may study the problems involved and the solutions that are being applied. Some such study of the work of various schools and church organizations is included in the requirement of all students who major or minor in Religious Education."

The bulletins of the University of Southern California and Hartford School of Religious Education describe the requirements for practice in some detail.

"*Practice Teaching and Other Field Work Under Supervision.* Arranged in cooperation with certain churches and centers offering favorable facilities for work. One individual conference hour per week, and one group conference hour per month required. This course affords a practical application of the theories of organization and administration of classes, clubs, departments and play centers."⁸

"*Practice in Religious Education.* Every student is required to do a piece of actual work and to carry it on in a highly effective way. There is a great variety of opportunity to fit individual needs, such as teaching of various kinds, administration, group leadership, observation in churches, missions, etc., and both in

6. *Collegiate and Professional Training for Christian Leadership*, Boston University School of Religious Education and Social Service, 1926-1927.

7. Klyver, F. H., *The Supervision of Student-Teachers in Religious Education*, Chap. III, Teachers College Bureau of Publications.

8. *Univ. of Southern California Bulletin, School of Religion*, Sept., 1926, p. 23.

country and city. In order to get one hour of credit at least three hours of work per week must be devoted to it. The student is required to keep a weekly record which is handed in monthly; to have a conference with the instructor over each written report; to attend a practice class at least monthly; and have a personal conference as soon as possible after being observed at his work."⁹

The bulletin of the Auburn School of Religious Education states that the faculty is thoroughly committed to the project principle in the development of courses in religious education. Further proof of this policy is found in the fact that 37 of the 49 courses at Auburn included in the survey offer provisions for practice or observation. There is practically no distinction between curricular and extra-curricular activities at this school.

The most extensive development of laboratory facilities in religious education has taken place at Elon College, North Carolina. A separate building for Christian Education has been in use at this college since 1925. The purpose of the building is described thus by President Harper:

"The Mooney Christian Education Building is designed to train young people for Christian leadership. It is also the rally center of the social and religious life of the entire college.—This building is big enough to house the social and religious activities of the students of a voluntary character as well as to supply the facilities for a laboratory of Religious Education for those who study in the Department of Religious Education. Only those are allowed to do laboratory work in Religious Education who have had at least one year of professional preparation in this department.—After the first year, upon the recommendation of the director and individual teachers, students who are still pursuing courses in the department are eligible to do laboratory work under the supervision of the department professors, of whom there are four. They are charged a laboratory fee for this work, just as students in chemistry or physics."¹⁰

A completely graded community Week-Day School of Religion is conducted in this building. Because of the absence of

any church organization in the small village, the Citizen's Sunday School is also held in the college building. Week-day religious schools in a nearby orphanage and a school for colored children offer additional opportunities for practice in religious education. In addition to equipment for a thoroughly departmentalized Church School, in the basement of the building are two rooms designed for manual training and practical arts and handicraft, equipped with machinery for woodwork and facilities for sewing, basketry and art.¹¹ There is an unusual device to facilitate supervision.

"One very special feature of this building is the dictograph which connects each class room with the Director's office and permits him to communicate with the superintendents of the departments, with the individual teachers, or to listen in at any point of the conduct of the worship or teaching process, the officer in charge or pupils not being aware that they are being supervised. It is thought that this is a much more satisfactory way of correcting the faults of young teachers than for the supervisor always to be present in the class room."¹²

PROBLEMS OF METHOD

In respect to the general principle there seems to be common agreement: undergraduate instruction in religious education, in order to be effective, must include opportunity for frequent contact with actual situations and problems involving the teaching of religion. That students are also conscious of this need is indicated by the response of a student who was asked to state his conception of the value of courses in religious education:

"Religious education courses without a laboratory are useless, and unless practice comes with theory, I think the work is in vain."¹³

But it is fair to ask whether the implications of this principle have been fully thought through, and whether the re-

11. For a detailed description of the building see article by S. A. Bennett in *Christian Education*, November, 1925, quoted also in Harper, *op. cit.*, pp. 132-135.

12. Harper, W. A., "An Integrated Program of Leadership Training," *Bulletin of Elon College*, November, 1926, p. 27.

13. Reported by P. H. Heisey, "Religious Education Courses in the College Curriculum," *Religious Education*, January, 1927, p. 47.

9. *Hartford Seminary Foundation Bulletin*, March, 1927, p. 130.

10. Harper, W. A., *An Integrated Program of Religious Education*, Macmillan, 1926, p. 132.

sources for making these practical contacts have been adequately utilized.

Why should the observation of concrete situations not be introduced earlier? Departments of religious education at present usually follow the traditional theory that one first gains knowledge and then applies it, whereas experience shows that learning and doing are a correlative process. Definitions and principles seem to grow out of concrete experiences, rather than to precede them. The first course in religious education which students take in college might still be called "An Introduction to Religious Education," but a more effective introduction to the field might be gained through supervised observations and surveys, followed by reports and accompanied by readings. This approach, restricted primarily to the field of method, is illustrated by a recent book, "Case Studies for Teachers of Religion."¹⁴ Abundant opportunities for a study of principles would be provided by such an immediate approach to concrete situations. The second course in the department could be concentrated upon the psychological and philosophical principles involved in the teaching of religion. Then would follow further observation of and practice with particular age-groups, accompanied by readings and discussion. Such an arrangement of courses would provide for an alternation of study and practice; the students' experience would form the basis, followed by organization and analysis of experience.

Such an organization of materials would help solve the problem which the teacher faces in regard to the subdivision of subject-matter. It is extremely difficult for teachers of religious education to differentiate between principles, methods, curriculum, and organization. All of these elements may be involved in any concrete teaching situation. True, a dis-

inction may be drawn between the philosophical, psychological and sociological approaches to religious education, but again these are interrelated so closely that the distinctions are based upon convenience rather than reality. When the course is organized around specific situations and particular age-groups, it is no longer necessary to subdivide subject-matter closely, but each phase of the educational process may be considered in its natural setting. Even the historical approach to the problem may readily be integrated with the present situation. Such a method of instruction would be less "academic," but more truly functional and in greater accord with psychological laws.

Fortunately, in religious education there is no lack of opportunity for dealing with actual life-situations. The survey reveals that week-day and Sunday schools provide the most frequent contacts. Observation and practice teaching are often carried on in the surrounding country as well as in the immediate environment. Boys' and girls' clubs and scout troops, Christian Associations, and private schools furnish additional resources for experiment and demonstration. Professors work in cooperation with city or county councils of religious education. Denominational coordination is sometimes established; the professor of religious education at Nebraska Wesleyan, for example, gives part of his time to the administration of religious education in the Nebraska Conference. On the other hand, it must be admitted that many college teachers of religious education are not utilizing to the full the opportunities afforded by the communities in which they are located. "Religious education" is sometimes restricted wholly to the teaching of the Bible in the Sunday School; at other times it is taught in a vacuum, without regard to the pressing problems of local church schools.

One of the most extensive experiments

¹⁴. Watson, G. B. and G. H., *Case Studies for Teachers of Religion*, Association Press, 1926.

in cooperation with the community was inaugurated at Hillsdale College, Michigan, in 1926. This college has offered its buildings, staff, and resources for the trying out of a Christian Education project with the cooperation of the State and County Y. M. C. A. The surrounding territory offers an ideal laboratory field for all kinds of leadership. The project is not limited to the training of Y. M. C. A. leaders, but includes Christian leadership in all its phases. Vocational guidance is occupying a large place in the program. Teams of students go out for week-ends into various communities.

"The team is prepared to lead in recreation, provide entertainment, lead in discussion, and speak at various services in the Churches. In addition, they are making a survey of the communities along economic, social, religious, and educational lines. The team evaluates the work in the community, and also makes definite recommendations regarding the needs of the community. One or two members of the team are then assigned to the community, to cooperate in filling these needs."¹⁵

Another important development has been the organization of a Community School for Adult Education, which includes courses in psychology and the principles and methods of religious education. In this way the Department of Applied Christian Education is recognizing its responsibility for training leaders among the residents of the local community. Prof. Sonquist feels that his department is helping to meet a pressing need:

"I have found that our colleges, segregated from life as they are, are failing to make the contributions to the communities which the latter have a right to expect.—Only when education becomes synonymous with life will it develop a leadership that will be able to meet the complex situations which are facing the youth of the present day.—The work of the student leaders, of the Deputation Teams, of the Community School, have all been instrumental in bringing the college and communities together in a remarkable way. Gradually the spirit of antipathy is disappearing, and a new relationship is taking its place."

Thus it is apparent that here and there

the department of religious education has become a reconstructive influence in the community. This is not an entirely new movement, for in 1914 Prof. W. S. Athearn wrote a book based upon his work in the city of Des Moines while he was a professor at Drake University,¹⁶ and a few years later Prof. W. C. Bower published materials on the survey of religious education in local churches, growing out of his experience with students at Transylvania College.¹⁷

The college campus itself furnishes a number of critical problems in religious education, but there is little evidence that they have been an object of direct concern in courses attached to the department of religious education. What situations could be of more direct interest to students than the college chapel, the student religious organizations, fraternity relationships, contacts between men and women on the campus? Why should a group of students not study the moral and religious problems of the college curriculum and of extra-curricular activities as earnestly as the students at Dartmouth and Harvard approached the educational system? Surely all of these may legitimately be considered as problems of adolescent religious education. Beginnings have been made in this direction. Students in courses in religious education at Bucknell University under the leadership of Prof. C. M. Bond have made surveys of campus situations, out of which grew a joint student-faculty committee on the regulation of social activities and an improvement of the chapel situation. At North-Central College, Illinois, students of Prof. E. E. Domm have assumed responsibility for a certain number of chapel services during the year and have attacked other campus problems. At Hillsdale College the presidents of the Y. W. C. A. and Y. M. C. A. happened

15. This description of the work at Hillsdale College and the quotations are taken from a report by Prof. David E. Sonquist.

16. Athearn, W. S., *The City Institute for Religious Teachers*, Univ. of Chicago Press, 1915.

17. Bower, W. C., *A Survey of Religious Education in the Local Church*, Univ. of Chicago Press, 1919.

to be in Prof. Sonquist's courses and were permitted to take their organizations as their projects in religious education. The Christian Education building at Elon College is partially an outgrowth of a survey made by a class of Juniors and Seniors ten years ago.¹⁸ They studied both the college and the community and found many instances of lack of correlation, with no unity of purpose among college organizations and inadequate provisions for educational and social life among the young people of the community. Doubtless a number of similar cases could be cited, but on the whole the campus has been neglected as a field for observation and practice in religious education.

The fact that a college provides opportunities for observation and practice teaching under supervision is in itself no guarantee of the effectiveness of the instruction. The contact with field situations may be a mechanical process, contributing little to the development of educational insight. On the other hand, the supervisor may maintain a cooperative relationship with the student, not solving his problems nor imposing programs, but developing the power to analyze situations and making resources available for the solution of difficulties. Prof. Dewey pointed out a number of years ago¹⁹ that the important objective in practice teaching or observation is that the student-teacher should become sensitive to the mental reactions of the pupils. More important than the acquiring of specific teaching techniques is the ability to sense what is going on in the minds of the pupils and to adjust the procedure to their reactions. "Immediate skill may be got at the cost of power to go on growing." The problem then resolves itself into this: How can supervised practice in re-

ligious education be carried on so as to develop intellectual independence and stimulate growth in skill?

Finally, there is the conflict between the advocates of method in courses dealing with religious education and those who emphasize content.

"The program of religions education that includes chiefly educational psychology and classroom methods is inadequate. I believe that content is at least as important as method for a teacher of religion."

The opinion prevails among many teachers that he is best fitted to teach who is most familiar with the subject-matter in his field. Others contend that the chief lack has not been inadequate knowledge of the Bible on the part of teachers, but ignorance as to the best methods of presenting the material. One professor points toward the solution of this apparent conflict when he writes:

"There has been too little attention given to the problem of coordinating method and subject matter."

In the training of teachers for the public schools a theory has been recently developed which attempts to harmonize the two viewpoints. It is called the "professionalization of subject matter."²⁰ It implies that instruction in a subject shall include discussions of the value of this material for teaching purposes, the particular teaching problems involved, and the instructional devices available. Why should college courses in Bible, History of Religions, and Psychology of Religion not give more adequate recognition to teaching values and problems? The conviction is growing that there is no fundamental distinction between content and method. The effect of this tendency will probably be to correlate courses in religious education more closely with other courses in religion.

Figures regarding student enrollment

18. Harper, W. A., "An Integrated Program of Leadership Training," *Bulletin of Elon College*, November, 1926, pp. 24-26.

19. Dewey, John, "The Relation of Theory to Practice in the Education of Teachers," *Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part I, 1904.

20. For a brief description of this theory and a critical analysis, see "The Training of Teachers: The Problem of Professionalized Subject-Matter," C. C. Fries, *Educational Administration and Supervision*, March, 1927, pp. 178-191.

previously cited²¹ show that undergraduates have not yet responded in large numbers to the provisions which have been made for a study of religious education. In many institutions these courses have been established through the zeal of older leaders in the church rather than from any expression of interest on the part of students. But when the work of the department of religious education is closely related to situations on the campus

and in the community, as it is being related in a number of cases, there is evidence that there is a much greater student response to the courses. To the extent in which students are introduced early in their college course to pressing social and religious issues of contemporary life, they are likely to gain a deeper insight into the function of religious education in the modern world.²²

21. See page 18.

22. The Correlation Course at Whittier College, California, represents a significant advance in this direction.

CHAPTER VI

AN EVALUATION OF TEXT-BOOKS IN USE

What texts are being used in undergraduate classes in religious education? How adequate are they with regard to the presentation of subject matter and adaptation to college use? Information on these points should furnish significant criteria as to the quality and character of instruction in this field. Since the college catalogs rarely mention the texts employed, it was necessary to send a questionnaire to the colleges offering religious education courses asking for the titles and authors of the books used as texts and references. (Page 87, Exhibit B.)

THE TEXTS IN USE

Four hundred and seventy-eight different titles were returned by the one hundred and fifty colleges. Of these, three hundred and seven dealt with some aspect of religious education while one hundred and seventy-one were concerned with psychology, general education, sociology, Biblical history and interpretation, or theology. One hundred and three from the first group and twenty-five from the second were named as texts, the remainder in each group being assigned as references. A large number of the books were reported only once and, therefore, can hardly be considered typical of the field. Table IX gives the titles and authors of all books appearing nine or more times, either as text or as reference, together with the number of colleges using each one and the number of classes in which each one is employed as a text.

It is, perhaps, indicative of the newness of religious education as a college subject that so few of these books were written for undergraduate use. Graduate students and the non-academic teacher-training groups of the church school have secured the major attention.

Religious education for special groups is represented by seven books on this list, all in its lower half; methods, by five; general theory, organization and administration and psychology, by four each; curriculum, by two; and the history of religious education, by one. The three volumes of *The Indiana Survey* are also included.

It is encouraging that so many college instructors are directing their students to the most fertile resources available, even if the style and organization of the material is intended for a more mature group. Interestingly enough, two of the pioneer books in the field are still in general use—*The Church School* by Athearn, and *Education in Religion and Morals* by Coe.

SECURING CRITERIA FOR JUDGMENT

Having discovered the text-books actually employed, the next point to be settled was their adequacy for college use. In formulating the necessary criteria an effort was made to secure objective standards which would be applicable to college text-books in any field, in the hope that the technique so developed might be found valuable for rating books in other subjects than religious education.

In order to avoid what might be the personal bias of a small group both the criteria for judging and the books to be judged were submitted to persons whose opinions would carry weight in the world of religious education and who represented different localities and points of view. Tentative criteria (Table X) were drawn up and sent to about one hundred individuals,—members of college departments of religious education, denominational leaders and those engaged in writing and publishing books on religious

TABLE IX

BOOKS USED 9 OR MORE TIMES AS TEXT OR REFERENCE IN UNDERGRADUATE RELIGIOUS EDUCATION COURSES

(Listed in order of frequency)

	<i>Title</i>	<i>Author</i>	<i>No. of colleges using book</i>	<i>No. of classes using book as text</i>
1.	Method in Teaching Religion.....	G. H. Betts and M. O. Hawthorne	61	45
2.	Social Theory of Religious Education.....	G. A. Coe.....	57	18
3.	The Organization and Administration of Religious Education.....	J. E. Stout.....	52	32
4.	The Curriculum of Religious Education.....	G. H. Betts.....	43	20
5.	Education in Religion and Morals.....	G. A. Coe.....	33	13
6.	The Curriculum of Religious Education.....	W. C. Bower.....	32	17
7.	How to Teach Religion.....	G. H. Betts.....	31	20
8.	History of Religious Education in Recent Times	A. A. Brown.....	30	13
9.	Organizing the Church School.....	H. F. Cope.....	26	15
10.	Childhood and Character.....	H. Hartshorne	25	10
11.	The Project Principle in Religious Education	E. L. Shaver.....	24	2
12.	The New Program of Religious Education.....	G. H. Betts.....	23	8
13.	Psychology of Adolescence.....	F. Tracy	18	7
14.	Psychology of Childhood.....	N. Norsworthy and M. Whitley	18	9
15.	Organization and Administration of the Sunday School	J. L. Cunningham and E. M. North.....	17	10
16.	Principles of Religious Education.....	E. E. Emme and P. R. Stevick	15	9
17.	Religious Education of Adolescents.....	N. Richardson	15	4
18.	The Pupil and the Teacher.....	L. A. Weigle.....	15	10
19.	The Church School.....	W. S. Athearn.....	14	2
20.	Primary Method in the Church School.....	A. Munkres	12	1
21.	Indiana Survey, Vol. I.....	W. S. Athearn.....	11	..
22.	Indiana Survey, Vol. II.....	W. S. Athearn.....	11	..
23.	Church School Administration.....	E. M. Ferguson.....	11	3
24.	The Church's Program for Young People.....	H. C. Mayer.....	11	7
25.	Religious Education in the Family.....	H. F. Cope.....	11	5
26.	Indiana Survey, Vol. III.....	W. S. Athearn.....	10	..
27.	Junior Methods in the Church School.....	M. C. Powell.....	10	2
28.	Handbook for Workers with Young People.....	S. V. Thompson.....	10	1
29.	Current Week Day Religious Education.....	P. H. Lotz.....	10	4
30.	Educational Psychology	E. L. Thorndike.....	9	..

education. They were asked to weight and comment on the criteria. (See Appendix B, (page 89.) Usable returns were secured from forty-eight persons (Table XI.) Their suggestions resulted in the amplification of the explanations for a number of items and the introduction of one new item, "psychological organization." Owing to pressure for time it was impossible to return the modified criteria to the group of forty-eight for further rating. Table XII gives the criteria in their final order of importance.

From these criteria a score sheet (Table XIII) was made out for use in judging each book and the complete set sent to twenty-five judges. In order to keep the judges' task within reasonable limits, fifteen books were chosen for review. Fourteen were selected as the texts most frequently used in undergraduate classes in religious education. The fifteenth, *Case Studies for Teachers of Religion* by G. B. and G. H. Watson, was included, at the suggestion of several of the group who weighted the criteria, as a

TABLE X
TENTATIVE CRITERIA FOR COLLEGE TEXT-BOOKS

I	II
	I. <u>EXTERNAL FORM</u>
	1. Binding (durability, attractiveness)
	2. Paper (quality)
	3. Type (size, clearness)
	4. Arrangement of page (spacing, margins)
	5. Press work (evenness of imprint, typographical accuracy)
	II. <u>LITERARY FORM</u>
	1. Style (choice of words, clearness, coherence, use of illustrations,—in relation to college students)
	2. Titles and Captions (appropriate headings for sections, chapters and paragraphs)
	3. Tables of Contents, Index (brevity, completeness)
	4. Footnotes, Appendices (accuracy, appropriateness)
	III. <u>SELECTION OF MATERIAL</u>
	1. Scope (adequacy in reference to range of topic treated)
	2. Breadth of Background (recognition of relation of material to important social and philosophical problems)
	3. Balance (space and emphasis in proportion to significance of material)
	4. Accuracy in statements of fact (indication of sources)
	5. Judgments and Conclusions (indication of grounds for reasoning)
	6. Adequacy for present use (in light of current developments in education, psychology, religious thought, natural sciences, etc.)
	7. Inclusiveness (recognition of conflicting points of view)
	8. Consistency (in relation to expressed or implied point of view)
	IV. <u>ORGANIZATION OF MATERIAL (for Classroom and Reference Use)</u>
	1. Division of material (logical and comparable units)
	2. Questions (clearness, stimulation to thought)
	3. Suggestions for further study (library readings and research)
	4. Suggestions for gathering additional data from the field observation, surveys, experimentation, etc.
	5. Bibliography (inclusion of varying viewpoints, annotation or classification)

Signature of reviewer.....

TABLE XI
THOSE WHO WEIGHTED THE CRITERIA

C. C. Alexander	A. E. Hetherington	Frank W. Padelford
George H. Betts	R. O. Hiltz	Wilfred E. Powell
Charles Bond	Harold B. Hunting	Seldon L. Roberts
E. S. Boyer	E. M. Hurst	J. Elliott Ross
L. L. Carpenter	Jean Gertrude Hutton	T. H. P. Sailer
James H. Chapman	F. W. Kerr	Stanley Scott
E. J. Chave	P. Henry Lotz	Harold J. Sheridan
George A. Coe	Herbert C. Mayer	L. W. Shultz
Charles Darsie	A. L. McCrimm	W. A. Squires
Charles A. Ellwood	Harold Meyer	Elliott Speer
Earle Emme	A. J. W. Meyers	Paul A. Stevick
Sophia L. Fahs	Mary E. Moxcey	Edward P. St. John
S. P. Franklin	M. F. Munro	Milton C. Towner
C. Leslie Glenn	E. R. Naylor	Paul H. Vieth
W. A. Harper	Henry Neumann	Goodwin B. Watson
L. Hekhuis	F. B. O'Rear	B. S. Winchester

TABLE XII
THE CRITERIA IN THE ORDER OF THEIR IMPORTANCE

1. Facts	14. Bibliography
2. Current Adequacy	15. Titles and Headings
3. Judgments and Conclusions	16. Table of Contents and Index
4. Breadth of Background	17. Type
5. Division of Material	18. Footnotes
6. Scope	19. Spacing
7. Inclusiveness	20. Printing
8. Questions	21. Paper
9. Balance	22. Binding
10. Consistency	Psychological Organization (This item
11. Field Study	was added after the criteria had been
12. Style	weighted and so cannot be assigned a
13. Special Topics	numerical position in the list.)

recent book likely to be significant in the field of religious education.

The judges who scored such of the fifteen books as they knew well, were:

A. T. Case, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

G. H. Betts, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.

W. A. Squires, Philadelphia.

H. B. Hunting, Boston.

H. A. Hartshorne, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York.

P. R. Stevick, Morningside College, Sioux City, Iowa.

L. L. Carpenter, Furman University, Greenville, S. C.

W. N. Stearns, Illinois Woman's College, Jacksonville.

W. E. Powell, Phillips University, Enid, Okla.

J. G. Hutton, University of Southern California, Los Angeles.

H. J. Sheridan, Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio.

C. H. Gillingham, Maryville College, Tenn.

P. H. Heisey, Wittenberg College, Springfield, Ohio.

W. J. Homan, Whittier College, Cal.

In tabulating the results of these reports, all of the replies on each book were compiled separately, item by item, and the average on each book for each item was listed. They are given in Table XIV. So if one wishes to find the *average of the ratings* assigned by the judges to

Stout's *Organization and Administration of Religious Education* in the matter of *consistency of view-point*, it is necessary only to look under criteria 10 at the row of figures which follows the title, and the rating is seen to be 4.1. The scale used was 5 to 1, with five as the highest and 1 as the lowest value. For *current adequacy*, Betts' *How to Teach Religion* has an average rating of 3.1, while Coe's *Education in Religion and Morals* is given 2.6.

To give the *comparative rankings* of the books on the various criteria, each item was taken separately and the averages for all the fifteen books were compared. In this case, 1 represents the highest rating. Since many of the ratings were the same, the lowest rating is not 15 but whatever the total of the different ratings happened to be. These figures are given in Table XV. To find, for example, the position of Betts' *Curriculum of Religious Education* with regard to its *division of material*, one traces down column 5 to the line of figures that follows the title of the book and discovers it to be second out of a possible ten. The last line of figures on the chart gives the total number of rankings in each case. Similarly, going down the column under *facts* to Hartshorne's *Childhood and Character*, one finds it assigned ninth place out of a possible ten positions. If, however, one wishes to discover what book or books hold first place for their breadth of background, one runs down that column and finds a 1 placed after both Coe's *Social*

EVALUATION OF BOOKS USED AS COLLEGE TEXTS IN RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

Title					
Author					
Publisher					
Rating					
Standard for College Text-Books					
1	2	3	4	5	(1) <i>Binding:</i> The book should be so bound as to be attractive in appearance, reasonably durable, and moderate in cost.
1	2	3	4	5	(2) <i>Paper:</i> The paper should be of such weight, texture, and color as to combine serviceableness, compactness, and attractiveness.
1	2	3	4	5	(3) <i>Type:</i> The type should be of such size and clearness as to insure ease of reading.
1	2	3	4	5	(4) <i>Spacing:</i> The material should be so spaced on a page as to provide symmetry of form and facility of reading, without unduly increasing the size of the book.
1	2	3	4	5	(5) <i>Printing:</i> The book should be a product of good workmanship, evidencing evenness of imprint and typographical accuracy.
1	2	3	4	5	(6) <i>Table of Contents, Index:</i> The table of contents and index should be accurate, concise, and sufficiently detailed for ready use.
1	2	3	4	5	(7) <i>Division of Material:</i> The material should be divided into logical and comparable units for convenience in study.
1	2	3	4	5	(8) <i>Titles, Headings:</i> The chapter titles should be appropriate and suggestive, and there should be sufficient headings of smaller sections to indicate the progress of thought.
1	2	3	4	5	(9) <i>Style:</i> The style of the book should conform to good literary standards and be suited to students' interests and ability, in respect to diction and vocabulary, clearness, coherence, and illustrations.
1	2	3	4	5	(10) <i>Psychological Organization:</i> The material of the book should be arranged psychologically to a sufficient degree to provide contact with familiar student experiences and concepts, and to make possible a continuous development of thought.
1	2	3	4	5	(11) <i>Questions:</i> Questions which are raised by the writer in the course of the discussion or at the end of chapters should be clearly stated and thought-provoking.
1	2	3	4	5	(12) <i>Special Topics:</i> Topics for special study and discussion should be suggested, with prominent attention to current changes and problems.
1	2	3	4	5	(13) <i>Field Study:</i> The book should provide guidance in gathering additional data from the field and in gaining practical experience, by including suggestions for observation, surveys, and experimentation.
1	2	3	4	5	(14) <i>Bibliography:</i> There should be a bibliography which indicates the significant source materials and gives recognition to varying viewpoints.
1	2	3	4	5	(15) <i>Footnotes, Appendices:</i> The book should contain in footnotes and appendices any reference and explanatory material which is relevant but which, if included in the main text, would interrupt the coherence of the writer's presentation.
1	2	3	4	5	(16) <i>Scope:</i> The scope of the material should be wide enough to cover adequately the field under consideration, in accordance with the aim of the writer and in light of its use by college students.
1	2	3	4	5	(17) <i>Balance:</i> The material should be given space and emphasis in proportion to its significance and in accordance with the practicability of its use by students.
1	2	3	4	5	(18) <i>Facts:</i> Statements of fact should be accurate and the sources should be indicated, unless widely known.
1	2	3	4	5	(19) <i>Judgments and Conclusions:</i> The basis for any judgments and conclusions which the author makes on important points should be clearly indicated.
1	2	3	4	5	(20) <i>Inclusiveness:</i> Conflicting points of view on major problems of theory or practice should be recognized and fairly represented.
1	2	3	4	5	(21) <i>Consistency:</i> The writer's treatment of his material should be consistent with his expressed or implied point of view.
1	2	3	4	5	(22) <i>Breadth of Background:</i> There should be an indication of the relation between the specific field covered in the book and wider social, educational, and philosophical problems; in other words, the book should have "cultural" setting.
1	2	3	4	5	(23) <i>Current Adequacy:</i> The book should be adequate for present use, in light of current developments in education, psychology, religious thought, natural sciences, etc.
Signature of Judge.....					
Date of review.....					

TABLE XV
THE BOOKS AS RANKED

Criteria in Their Order of Importance	THE BOOKS AS RANKED																						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	
	Ranks	Current Adequacy	Judgment and Conclusions	Breadth of Background	Division of Material	Scope	Inclusiveness	Questions	Balance	Consistency	Field Study	Style	Special Topics	Bibliography	Titles and Headings	Table of Contents, Index	Type	Footnotes	Spacing	Printing	Paper	Binding	
1. Methods in Teaching Religion.....	4	4	8	8	1	5	5	3	2	6	4	2	3	2	2	2	2	6	1	3	3	4	2
2. Organization and Administration of R. E.....	6	6	9	10	8	10	7	8	7	4	12	6	12	9	5	4	2	9	1	3	3	4	6
3. The Curriculum of Rel. Ed. (Betts).....	5	3	4	5	2	3	4	1	4	6	6	3	2	3	1	2	3	5	1	4	3	3	4
4. How To Teach Religion.....	9	8	9	10	7	8	6	4	10	5	8	1	5	5	8	5	2	9	2	4	3	4	5
5. A Social Theory of Rel. Ed.....	1	2	3	1	3	2	2	4	3	2	7	3	8	2	6	3	7	1	7	6	2	5	5
6. The Curriculum of Rel. Ed. (Bower).....	7	5	7	4	5	4	4	7	8	7	11	8	11	1	11	4	3	10	5	6	5	2	6
7. Organizing the Church School.....	3	4	4	3	1	4	5	6	2	4	7	7	7	6	10	6	4	3	3	6	6	5	5
8. Education in Religion and Morals.....	2	10	1	2	2	6	2	7	5	2	10	4	10	8	8	6	5	7	6	7	3	4	5
9. A History of Rel. Ed. in Recent Times.....	9	9	4	11	6	11	5	4	9	8	7	5	4	6	7	2	1	5	2	6	4	5	8
10. Childhood and Character.....	8	7	3	6	4	9	4	2	7	2	2	4	1	2	7	5	5	2	4	5	4	6	3
11. The Organization and Administration of the Sunday-school.....	8	12	9	10	10	12	9	7	8	9	5	6	9	10	9	7	6	10	5	7	7	7	7
12. The Pupil and The Teacher.....	5	11	6	9	9	10	6	5	6	5	9	5	7	11	11	8	8	11	8	8	7	8	6
13. Principles of Religious Education...	5	1	8	1	7	1	3	2	1	1	7	3	1	5	3	6	1	7	2	2	1	1	1
14. Psychology of Childhood.....	4	4	2	4	1	4	1	2	2	3	3	3	4	4	4	1	4	4	3	3	2	2	2
15. Case Studies for Teachers of Religion...	10	2	5	7	9	7	8	2	3	3	1	4	6	7	8	9	2	8	1	1	2	5	1
Total Number of Rankings.....	10	12	9	12	10	12	9	8	10	9	12	8	12	11	11	9	8	11	8	8	7	8	8

Theory and Emme and Stevick's *Principles of Religious Education*. If bibliography is the point at issue and the position desired the lowest, one discovers an 11 in that column placed after Weigle's *The Pupil and the Teacher*, with 11 as the total number of rankings on that particular point.

THE BOOKS AS REVIEWED

The majority of the books rate well on their format. Apparently college texts may be expected to have satisfactory binding, paper, type, spacing and printing. The exceptions to this rule were Coe's *Social Theory*, Cope's *Organizing the Church School*, Cunnigim and North's *Organization and Administration of the Sunday School* and Weigle's *The Pupil and the Teacher*. These were all given low scores for type, spacing and printing.

Methods in Teaching Religion by G. H. Betts and M. O. Hawthorne is used in more colleges than any other text reported. Its strongest point is the organization and division of its material. Its questions and suggestions for field study, bibliography and headings also add greatly to the book's effectiveness for class use. One judge questions the style as "too labored and involved for the average undergraduate" but the majority do not report this difficulty. The book takes middle place on factual accuracy, current adequacy and the presentation of conflicting points of view and drops in the scale when it comes to consistency, the indication of relations to wider social and educational problems and the way in which the grounds for the author's judgments and conclusions are shown. Ten judges rated the book.

Eleven judges commented on *Organization and Administration of Religious Education* by J. E. Stout. Not written for college use, it is second on the list as a college text. The book maintains a consistent point of view, "solid if not radical," according to one judge, and provides satisfactory headings, table of con-

tents and index. Such collegiate aids to study as special topics, bibliography, questions and suggestions for field study are, however, inadequate. In adequacy for present use, accuracy of facts, psychological organization of material and style the book takes medium rank and is below the average in its presentation of conflicting points of view, its indication of wider educational and social relationships and the balance and scope of the material considered.

Clearly a text-book, *The Curriculum of Religious Education* by G. H. Betts is well supplied with such aids to study as questions, bibliography, headings and index, while its special topics win it second place on that count. The scope and balance of its material and its indications of larger relationships are good. In factual accuracy, the presentation of conflicting points of view, the psychological organization of subject matter and the indication of the basis for the author's conclusions the book is given medium place. Sixth out of a possible nine when it comes to consistency, on current adequacy this text is third of a possible twelve. These results are based on the ratings of ten judges.

How to Teach Religion by G. H. Betts is first of the fifteen in point of style but takes a rather low place on the other counts. Special topics, bibliography and questions are of medium rank; but accuracy of facts, consistency of view point and the indications of the wider relationships of the subject matter are well below the average. The same is true of the psychological organization of its material, in which this book takes fifth place out of a possible eight and of its adequacy for present use, in which it ranks eighth out of twelve. It is only fair to remember, as several of the eleven reporting judges remind us, that this book was not intended for college use.

According to the judgment of the thirteen judges who rated it, G. A. Coe's *A Social Theory of Religious Education* takes first place for accuracy of facts and

indication of the relationships of its field to wider social, educational and philosophical problems. The book is given second place for adequacy for present use, although it was published in 1917. As one judge remarks, it is "still a live source of inspiration and wider understanding for graduates and undergraduates." Low ratings are given for the book's suggestions for field study and special topics, also for its titles and headings. Somewhat above the average in the division and psychological organization of material and style, *A Social Theory* rises to the upper levels on consistency of view point, presentation of conflicting points of view, and the clear indication of the author's grounds for his conclusions.

Nine judges reported on W. C. Bowser's *The Curriculum of Religious Education*. They found the style "too abstract for the average undergraduate." The helps provided for the student are rated both excellent and inadequate—the bibliography gives the book first place on that count, with the table of contents, index and division of material following close behind, but suggestions for field study, special topics and titles and headings are rated very low. The book is slightly below the halfway mark in consistency, factual accuracy and the clear indication of the basis for its judgments and conclusions. It is found in the upper ranks in the scope of its material, the presentation of conflicting points of view and the indication of the cultural setting of its subject. This further comment by one of the judges should be included in order to be perfectly fair: "I have scored this book down on a number of points because it does not fit the needs of the particular type of students that I have in my class. In other situations the score would be much higher."

Organizing the Church School by H. F. Cope occupies a middle position on most points. Its titles and headings are

lower than this while its footnotes are higher. For the division and balance of its material the book receives a very high rating. The scores were furnished by seven judges.

Published in 1904, G. A. Coe's *Education in Religion and Morals* is used by thirty-three colleges. Perhaps this is partly due to the historical significance of the book. According to one of the five judges reporting on it, "This book was wonderful in its time." It is not surprising to find that the book is considered thoroughly inadequate for present use as a text. In factual accuracy, consistency, the presentation of differing points of view and breadth of background it still receives a high rank. For the clearness with which the author has indicated the grounds for his conclusions, the book is given first place on that count.

A History of Religious Education in Recent Times by A. A. Brown is the only strictly historical study included in this list. Yet its ten judges rank it low in factual accuracy, the consistent treatment and scope of its material and its adequacy for present use. The literary style, the special topics suggested for study and the table of contents are good.

Childhood and Character by Hugh A. Hartshorne takes second place out of a possible twelve for its suggestions for field study. Its questions, suggestions for special study and bibliography are also excellent, as are its style and consistency of view point. In factual accuracy, the balance and scope of its material and adequacy for present use the book is rated low. "This book needs some revision" but it "still remains good background reading for undergraduates," according to two of its nine judges.

The four judges who reported on *The Organization and Administration of the Sunday School* by J. L. Cunningham and E. M. North give it a very low rating on practically all the points considered. Suggestions for special topics and field study

take a medium place, the highest rating given for this book.

Another book which has a long record of use is *The Pupil and the Teacher* by L. A. Weigle. According to the author's statement it was not written for college use; but fifteen colleges reported its employment and one of its eleven judges wrote, "Though not well adapted to college ages and not brought up to date in certain particulars, this is still an exceedingly useful book." Another judge finds it "hopelessly out of date for a modern college class." Fifth place in a possible ten for factual accuracy is the highest rank awarded the book.

Principles of Religious Education by E. E. Emme and Paul R. Stevick was scored by five judges. They gave the book first place among the fifteen for its adequacy for present use, and placed it in the first rank for the psychological organization of its material and the indication of the wider relationships of its subject matter. The book is also rated high on its consistency of viewpoint, the balance and scope of its material, its style and the special topics provided. Factual accuracy and the indication of the grounds for the author's conclusions, the division of material and the suggestions for field study take a rather low place. One of the judges considers the book "a very clever discussion from one point of view."

Written as a text for an entirely different field, *Psychology of Childhood* by N. Norsworthy and M. Whitley is used as a text or reference in eighteen college classes in religious education. The ratings are all in the upper half of the scale, with first place given to the division of material, the presentation of differing points of view and the table of contents. Medium place is given to the cultural setting, factual accuracy, the scope of the material and adequacy for present use. One of the ten judges finds, "Though not restricted to religious education, this is one of the most helpful sources for back-

ground reading, preparatory to insight into the mind of modern religious education."

Case Studies for Teachers of Religion by G. H. and G. B. Watson was published in 1926 and is the most recent of the books on the list. This book is in the first rank on the psychological organization of its material and in the lowest rank on factual accuracy. The authors' aim is, clearly, to make the book thought-provoking rather than fact-giving, an aim which evidently meets the judges' approval for they give it second place in adequacy for present use. The book is well balanced and consistent in viewpoint, with good questions and excellent suggestions for field study. It is surprising that a book of this character does not have higher ratings in such matters as special topics, bibliography, titles and table of contents. The scope of material, presentation of conflicting points of view and the indication of the relation of the subject matter to wider social, educational and philosophical problems, are rated low.

SUMMARY

On the basis of this evaluation of textbooks it would seem that accuracy of facts, although rated as the most important element in a text-book, is not the outstanding characteristic of religious education texts. Nor are the more recent texts the more accurate. Coe's two books published in 1904 and 1917 take first and second place, respectively, with Cope's, published in 1923, taking third; while Betts' and Hawthorne's *Methods in Teaching Religion*, 1925, and Bower's *Curriculum of Religious Education*, 1925, occupy fourth and seventh places, respectively. Watson's *Case Studies for Teachers of Religion*, the most recent book on the list, is lowest of all. As a rule, the books which rate high on their accurate presentation of facts are in the upper ranks when it comes to the clearness with which the author's reasons for his conclusions are given. A consistent point of view, rec-

ognition of positions which differ from the author's and a wise balance and division of subject matter are generally prevalent. Does this indicate that authors of text-books in religious education tend to be more concerned with the manner than with the accuracy of their presentation?

The survey of the courses in religious education offered to undergraduates shows the most frequent offerings to be in principles of religious education, followed by organization and administration and methods, with curriculum third, and either the psychology of religion or the religious education of children or adolescents, fourth in rank.¹ The provision of text-book material is not in line with this emphasis. Of the 307 titles on religious education reported, 76 deal with methods; 42, with special groups such as young people, weekday schools, etc.; 34, with skills like story-telling and dramatics; 24, with organization and administration; and 11, with theory or principles. The rest of the titles were divided among curriculum, psychology, biblical interpretation, history, etc. The historical approach to the study of religious education is largely ignored. Only 14 classes with that title are reported and only 7 texts can be grouped in that category. Of the seven, one deals with the Y. M. C. A., one with the Y. W. C. A., one with the Young People's Movement, and three with the Sunday School. A. A. Brown's *History of Religious Education in Recent Times* is the most used and the most comprehensive text in this division. It is rated low, however, on the accuracy of its facts and its adequacy for present use.

It is clear from the titles of religious-education text-books reported that there

are still colleges whose undergraduate work in this field amounts to little more than the completion of the standard teacher training course of the denomination influential in the college. That this is not the prevailing practice is shown by the list of the thirty texts in most general use. Texts written for non-academic training groups do appear on that list; but they are either the more advanced of such texts, or there is nothing more satisfactory to take their place. The tendency seems to be to direct undergraduates to material intended for graduate or professional students.

There are those who question the preparation of text-books intended exclusively for undergraduate use on the ground that the text-book method of instruction is on the wane. 108 classes in 89 colleges reported the use of a variety of references rather than a single text.² From some of the reference lists submitted it would seem that the students are turned loose in the library to find for themselves what is pertinent to their problems.

As in methods of instruction and the organization of courses, college departments vary in the quality of the text-books employed and in the manner of their use. While there are obvious reasons for encouragement in the range and quality of many of the references offered to undergraduates, there are also various questions to be faced with regard to the place of the text or reference in educational procedure and, more specifically, the need for material by which the undergraduate may be introduced to the philosophy and principles of religious education,—its educational relationships and social implications, as well as its skills and sources of inspiration.

1. See Chapter 5, page 35.

2. See Chapter 5, page 37.

CHAPTER VII

THE HISTORIC SETTING

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE RELIGIOUS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

The results of this survey tend to emphasize both the youth and the vigor of the religious education movement. The use of the term itself seems to be little more than a quarter of a century old. It came into wide use following the organization at Chicago in 1903 of the Religious Education Association. It goes without saying that this was an event of far-reaching importance in the development of professional aspects of the religious education movement. The influence of the Association on college policy was, however, largely indirect during its earliest years. The first convention, meeting in answer to a call sent out by the Council of Seventy, included in its ranks many prominent teachers and executives from colleges and universities. President William Rainey Harper of the University of Chicago had been the moving spirit in the organization of the Council and was profoundly interested in the relation of religion to higher education, but the range of specific problems discussed at the first meeting under the topic, "The Next Step Forward in Religious Education,"¹ indicates that there was no clear notion of the place the college ought to fill in the development of a professional leadership. The Sunday school, the Christian Associations, the young people's societies, the curriculum (conceived largely as lesson quarterlies and lesson helps), and the general scope of the new organization largely engaged the attention of the first meeting.

This is not to say that the relation of religious education to general education was at that time either denied or ignored. Many leaders were eager to explore the

"no man's land" which had come to constitute a barrier to progress for both education and religion. Accordingly a place was made for the topic "Religious Education as a Part of General Education." To this subject Professors George A. Coe and Edwin D. Starbuck brought able and informed addresses. Professor Coe pointed out that "the spirit of religion must be infused into the whole educational organism."² Professor Starbuck likewise asserted that "religious education is a part of education in its largest sense. . . . The feeling of the unity of life must lead us to feel the weakness of the distinction between secular and religious education."³ Professor John Dewey, then of the University of Chicago, and President Henry Churchill King of Oberlin College, supplemented this point of view with addresses on the topic "Religious Education as Conditioned by Modern Psychology and Pedagogy."⁴

THE MAGAZINE AN IMPORTANT PROFESSIONAL MEDIUM

Another milestone was reached in the quarter century development under review, with the appearance in 1906 of the first number of the magazine, *Religious Education*. It is notable that within a twelve-month this magazine was able to broadcast to its readers a report of the first survey of the teaching of religion in American institutions of learning. Two new developments appeared at this time. One of these was the Affiliated College, an institution—in most cases denominational—located near and affiliated with a state university. The first outstanding example of this procedure is to be found in the re-location of Red River University, which was brought to a campus ad-

1. The Religious Education Association, *Proceedings of the First Annual Convention*, Chicago, Feb. 10-12, 1903.

2. *Ibid.*, p. 50.

3. *Ibid.*, p. 54.

4. *Ibid.*, pp. 66-79.

jacent to the University of North Dakota and re-named Wesley College.⁵ The primary concern was to provide religious instruction for students of the State University under such an arrangement that both institutions might remain free from the criticism and opposition usually engendered by the introduction of questions of religion directly into the courses of a state university. A second attempt to provide religious education appeared in the form of Foundations,⁶ early examples of which are to be found in Westminster Hall at the University of Kansas and the Bible College at the University of Missouri. In the same period lectures on religious and moral education were given at Syracuse, Western Reserve, Harvard, Yale, and the University of Chicago. Most of the lectures thus provided were extra-curricular and covered a wide range of topics. The report of 1907, prepared by Professor W. N. Stearns of Wesley College in North Dakota, indicates that Ethics, English Bible and Philosophy appeared to be the most popular subjects in the fields related to the study of religion. The figures from fourteen institutions indicated that from fourteen to forty-one percent of eligible students were pursuing elective courses in these three subjects.

A CROWDED PERIOD

A marked concentration upon the problem of religious education in the colleges occurred during the period from 1912 to 1915. The annual convention of the Religious Education Association in 1912 was devoted to the theme "Training Religious Leadership";⁷ committees were appointed to define further the purpose of religious instruction in the colleges and to make recommendations concerning the raising of academic

standards; and the renewed study of the situation was accompanied by a rapid increase in the amount of instruction given in colleges and universities. Some indication of this increased interest is to be found in the fact that almost every issue of *Religious Education* during this period made some reference to the problem of religion in the colleges, and many issues were almost wholly given to articles on the subject:

April, 1912—5 articles.

June, 1912—2 articles.

October, 1912—11 articles.

December, 1913—12 articles on "Religion in the Colleges."

April, 1914—8 articles on "The College and the Social Order."

August, 1915—Entire issue on "Teaching the Bible and Religion in the Colleges."

October, 1915—One-half of the issue on "Religious Education as a Profession."

A commission appointed by the Religious Education Association in 1911 reported in 1912 concerning the preparation of religious leaders in universities and colleges. Their conclusions were based on replies from 140 institutions. The questionnaire which was sent out had included questions on what was actually being done to train religious leaders, and what, in the judgment of the presidents, ought to be undertaken by way of advance. The commission, which included among its members Professor Edwin D. Starbuck and Dr. Harry E. Fosdick, attached little significance to the statistical results of its investigation, but expressed very firmly its estimate of the general trend of the movement:

"One thing stands out with perfect clearness, that there is a tide in the minds of university and college men in the direction of making the curriculum useful for those who are engaged professionally in religious work, and that much of this interest is already crystallizing itself in definite plans for its accomplishment."⁸

5. Stearns, Wallace N., "Religious Education at State Universities," *Religious Education*, I (1906), 193-194.

6. Report of the Committee of Six, "Religious and Moral Education in the Universities and Colleges in the United States," *Religious Education*, I (1907), 201-225; Robertson, Edwin R., "The Affiliated College," *Religious Education*, I (1907), 226-227.

7. *Religious Education*, VI, VII.

8. "Report of Commission Appointed in 1911 to Investigate the Preparation of Religious Leaders in Universities and Colleges," *Religious Education*, VII (1912), 329-348.

TEN YEARS' PROGRESS

This general trend was signally emphasized in the address of Secretary Henry F. Cope at the convention of the Religious Education Association in 1913. Speaking on the topic "Ten Years' Progress in Religious Education," he said:

"Probably there is no sign so full of promise as the development of a spirit of religious education in the universities and colleges. . . . As a definite expression of this spirit the colleges are designedly developing religious leaders; they are preparing youth for efficiency in religious service, for the interpretation of religion in terms of modern life, and the organization of that life in terms of religion."⁹

This statement illustrates a significant change, as Secretary Cope pointed out, in the meaning of the phrase "religious education." He further reported that thirty-six institutions were known to be offering courses in Methods of Religious Education, as compared with ninety-four that gave courses in Biblical History and Literature, and ninety-seven in Ethics.

LEADERS: THE LAW OF DEMAND AND SUPPLY

Another commission was appointed by the Religious Education Association in 1914, with instructions to investigate during the following year, "The Training and Supply of Professional Workers in Religious Education." Its report at the annual convention of the Association in March, 1915, contained a statement of findings of great significance:

"A new profession, that of religious educator, is springing up . . . a profession which, like that of public education, has several branches . . . but adequate training for professional work in religious education is rare. What is more serious, present opportunities for such training are utterly inadequate to meet the need. . . . For the training and supply of professional workers we must look chiefly to educational institutions that owe their existence to religious motives. We have repeatedly requested such colleges to give courses in the rudiments of religious education, to the end that our educated laymen may know something of real life in home and church. Many colleges have responded to these requests and the re-

sponses are increasing. We now urge a further step. It is that the privately endowed colleges adopt at once the policy of ultimately giving to religious education as extended and thorough a treatment as they give to public education."¹⁰

This commission at the same time instructed Professor Walter S. Athearn to conduct a survey on "Religious Education as a Subject of Instruction in Colleges and Universities." The material was gathered partly from catalogues, and partly from question circulars sent in December, 1914, to the presidents of 300 institutions. The 140 replies may be assumed to represent most of the institutions that had any definite interest in religious education. The investigation was limited to religious education in the stricter sense of instruction designed to prepare students to teach religion either professionally or non-professionally. The following statistics, summarizing Professor Athearn's report,¹¹ provide the basis for an interesting comparison with the findings of the present survey:

Number of colleges and universities reporting courses	38
Number of courses reported	71
Total semester hours' credit represented in courses	217
Number of professors, instructors and lecturers	40
Number of full time professors	6
Institutions offering a major in religious education	2
Colleges reporting provision for observation and practice teaching	11
Colleges reporting religious education club or professional organization	7

The gathering momentum of the movement is indicated by the fact that eleven colleges reported their courses as being in the first year, and that one-half of the institutions had conducted courses in religious education less than three years. In nearly all cases the courses were attached to some older department, such as Philosophy, Biblical Literature, or Education. Six institutions reported graduate work leading to the degree of Master of Arts or Doctor of Philosophy in Re-

9. Cope, Henry F., "Ten Years' Progress in Religious Education," *Religious Education*, VIII (1913), 113-149.

10. The Twelfth Annual Convention, *Religious Education*, X (1915), 198-200.

11. *Religious Education*, X (1915), 412-426.

ligious Education. One institution, Drake University, had a school of Religious Education with two professors on full time. In the majority of cases the courses were simply added to the schedule of an already burdened faculty member. Fifteen professors and instructors of a total of forty-five, reported having received professional training in preparation for the courses offered. Five of these had studied at Union Theological Seminary; five at the University of Chicago; two at Yale University; two at the State University of Iowa; and one at Hartford Theological Seminary. Among the institutions were three state universities, those of Iowa, Minnesota and Washington; thirteen were independent colleges and universities; and twenty-two were denominational colleges, divided among some ten denominations.

EMERGING EMPHASES

Professor Athearn's report¹² included a number of significant conclusions. (1) The term "religious education" as applied to college and university instruction should be defined. It should be distinguished from the courses which seem to promote the religious growth of students. It should be applied primarily to the theory and practice of teaching religion. (2) College and university work in this field may be expected to develop slowly. This is desirable in order that adequate leadership may be provided and a sufficient body of material developed. (3) Trained men are required for this work. (4) The colleges should define their relation to education as an occupation. Without doing violence to the cultural aims of the college, religious education may ask for the same recognition in the curriculum as is accorded to general education. (5) In the freshmen and sophomore years subjects should be offered that lead up to specialized study of religious education in the junior and senior years. (6)

Practice teaching and observation should be provided, and the professional spirit should be created. There should be provision for illustrating methods of teaching under laboratory conditions. (7) The organization of Religious Education in colleges should follow the general plan adopted for departments of education. A department could be established with eighteen to twenty hours of religious education counting as a major, including the following four courses as a core: Principles of Religious Education; Child Psychology; History, Agencies, and Material of Religious Education; Organization and Administration of Moral and Religious Education.

OTHER AGENCIES ACTIVE

It must be understood that the Religious Education Association was by no means alone in its promotion of religious education in higher institutions. This is indicated by several studies carried on by other organizations. A commission appointed jointly by the Religious Education Association and the Association of Biblical Instructors made a report in 1913 on "the Bible and the College Curriculum."¹³ Its Chairman, Dr. Charles Foster Kent, pointed out the general aim for courses in the junior and senior years as follows: "Training for Effective Social and Religious Activity in the Church, the Sunday School, Christian Association, and social and civic organizations."

The International Sunday School Association also appointed in 1913 a committee, of which Professor Walter S. Athearn was chairman, to propose a revision of the Teacher Training Standards of the Association. Among the authorized courses of study the committee in its report on January 12, 1914, included "Courses Leading to a Collegiate Certificate of Religious Education." The report goes on to say:

"The International Sunday School Association will grant a Certificate of Religious Edu-

¹² "Religious Education in the Colleges," *Religious Education*, X (1915), 412-426.

¹³ *Religious Education*, VIII (1913), 453-468.

cation to students of any accredited college who have taken at least thirty semester hours of work in religious education, the course to be distributed as follows:

1. Biblical Introduction, History and Literature8 hours
2. Organization and Methods of Religious Education6 hours
3. Theory and History of Religious and Moral Education2 hours
4. Electives8 hours

"All of these courses must be of college grade, and they must be taught by regular members of the college faculty, or other persons approved by the college, and be granted full college credit."¹⁴

DENOMINATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS

Several denominations were likewise carrying forward plans which affected the colleges. The outstanding example is the report of a commission which was appointed by the Disciples Church to study the training of religious leaders in that denomination.¹⁵ Professor W. C. Bower and Professor W. S. Athearn were members of the commission. The report included valuable historical data, pointing out that a course for the training of religious leaders had been established at the College of the Bible, Lexington, Kentucky, in 1909, and that Drake University had followed as a close second. It was further pointed out that Drake University had established a "School of Religious Education" offering a general course, a four-year diploma course, and a two year certificate course. The commission proposed that "every college of the Disciples should offer adequate courses for the training of leaders and teachers." Three types of courses were to be offered: (1) Courses for all students preparing for participation in religious community activities; (2) Courses preparing ministerial students for educational work; (3) Courses preparing specialists in the field of religious education, to be thoroughly scientific and equal to training in the secular field.

14. Athearn, Walter S., "Teacher Training Standards," *Religious Education*, IX (1914), 553.

15. Report of Commission, "Training Religious Leaders in Disciples Churches," *ibid.*, X (1915), 135-158.

INFLUENCE OF PIONEER PROTESTANT GROUPS

It should be noted that one reason for the prominence given to undergraduate instruction in religion by the colleges of the Disciples, as well as by many of the Methodist and Baptist colleges, was that graduate theological training was not emphasized or demanded as a requirement for ministerial standing. The consequence has been the provision for professional training in Colleges of the Bible, Departments of Religion, and more latterly, Departments of Religious Education attached to the church colleges. A notable example of this is to be found in the recent developments reported in the "Christian Education Magazine" of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South.¹⁶ The General Conference of 1914 authorized the establishment of departments of religious education in all church colleges, and furthermore canvassed the desirability of entering the field of State education. It will thus be seen that the General Board of Education was made responsible for the promotion of this special interest in the colleges; this must be understood to include courses in the Bible and in Biblical Literature, as well as courses on Method. The Executive Secretary of the Board now gives his time in part to the promotion of religious work in state institutions, but is charged directly with the responsibility of promoting courses in religious education in the colleges of the denomination.

This Board of Education has made provision in its program for two features which seem to be unique. The first is a series of conferences on religious education, some held at a summer camp assembly and others held at Memphis during the year. The former have been interdenominational in character, while the latter have brought together persons within

16. *General Conference and Yearbook Number*, Board of Education, Methodist Episcopal Church, South, May, 1926.

the denomination representing a wide variety of experience and training, including "professors of religious education, student pastors, Bible chair professors in State institutions, board secretaries and ministers." A second unique feature has been the annual conference of the professors of religious education in the church colleges and of the religious workers in the State institutions.

BROADENING THE OFFERING IN RELIGION

Another example of the denominational developments is to be seen in the program recently developed by the Presbyterian Church in the U. S. A.¹⁷ It has been pointed out earlier in this report that the Presbyterian bodies, and especially the Presbyterian Church in the U. S. A., have historically laid peculiar emphasis upon the teaching of the Bible. The report here referred to reiterates that emphasis:

"The Christian college says boldly and frankly that there can be no real education without the development of proper motives in life, or without a proper motivation for life. These motives and that motivation can come, and come only, through the cultivation of the religious and spiritual life of the student. This cultivation is helped and advanced by a proper and due study of the Bible, the record of the ways of God with men and of men with God and with His ideals. So in every Presbyterian college the Bible as an object of study has an important and increasing place."

The Report describes in some detail the extent to which the study of the Bible has increased. After pointing out that, according to figures secured in January, 1926, "... our colleges now enjoy the income from a total of \$1,882,830 of productive Bible chair endowment," the Report continues:

"All this is encouraging, but even more encouraging is the progress made in developing standard departments of religious education for the training of our young people, not only in the Bible but also in those kindred subjects, and those methods of work, which will enable them to go forth from college prepared to give their lives in the field of religious education. Two years ago the Board could report no more than a suggestion that such departments should be established. Now it is able

to state that four such standard departments will open in the fall of 1926, and this means at least \$200,000 more of endowment for such religious training in our colleges. A study of the figures for the past decade indicates that interest in this kind of work is increasing at an accelerated rate, which is cause for rejoicing in the church."

OUTSTANDING INSTITUTIONS

In addition to these denominational developments the history of the period gains in concreteness as one takes account of the influence of outstanding institutions. The College of the Bible at Lexington, Kentucky, and Drake University at Des Moines, Iowa, have already been mentioned as pioneers in the field. The Foundations, Lectureships, and Affiliated Colleges also appeared early. In 1912 a rather extensive experiment at Washburn College was reported and in the same year a small department of religious education was reported at the University of South Carolina. In 1914 special evening courses for Sunday School workers were offered by Columbia University and by the University of Chicago. In 1914 a course for social-religious workers was established at Teachers College, with Miss Lavinia Tallman as instructor. Teachers College students continued to take courses in religious education at the Union Theological Seminary with Professors Coe and Hartshorne, but the increased demand for such courses in Teachers College eventuated in the establishment of a Department of Religious Education in the latter institution. Dr. Coe was the advising head of the department in Teachers College from its inception; it was not until 1922, however, that he resigned from the faculty of the Union Theological Seminary and entered upon professorial duties in Teachers College. Lake Erie College established a course in "Religious Psychology and Methods of Religious Pedagogy" in 1911. Wellesley College established a course in 1914. Boston University, under the leadership of Prof. W. S. Athearn, carried through a little later a comprehensive plan of

¹⁷ *Third Annual Report of the Board of Christian Education of the Presbyterian Church in the U. S. A., 1926.*

extension work in Sunday school teacher training in about sixty churches in and about Boston, classes being taught by university students under supervision. Other institutions which were mentioned occasionally in issues of *Religious Education*, are Brown University, Fargo College, James Millikin University, Grinnell College, Oberlin College, Eugene Bible Institute and Peabody College for Teachers. The provisions for graduate study at such institutions as Boston University, Drake University, the University of Chicago, Teachers College at Columbia University, Northwestern University, Yale University, Union Theological Seminary, the Hartford School of Religious Education, etc., have profoundly influenced the course of development in the colleges, by stimulating the production of a body of literature of great value, by providing professionally trained teachers for the college departments, and by encouraging pre-professional study in the colleges looking toward later professional training in the universities. Provisions for granting the Ph. D. have added emphasis to the character of the changes.

An illuminating example of the evolution of one of these schools is to be found in the history of the "Hartford School of Religious Education." It was founded in 1885 in Springfield, Massachusetts, under the name, "School for Christian Workers." It continued under this title until 1897 when it was named "Bible Normal College." In 1902 it was moved to Hartford, Connecticut, and brought into affiliation with Hartford Theological Seminary. Still later it was brought into closer association with the Seminary under the name, "The Hartford School of Religious Pedagogy." A new charter in 1913 included the School and the Seminary under the corporate name, "The Hartford Seminary Foundation." It was finally given its present title in 1925.

THE RECENT EXPANSION

The expansion during the last quarter

of a century may be divided into the pre-war period and the post-war period. The peak of the pre-war expansion came in 1915 when six institutions reported the introduction of new courses, or of new departments for religious education. The movement, like many other educational interests, suffered decline during the period from 1916 to 1919. Occasional articles relating to the college situation appeared in *Religious Education*, but they were not of a nature to reveal widespread changes or to delineate trends. The most useful of these was an extended bibliography in the form of "An Outline with Selected References."¹⁸

The following table indicates the avidity with which institutions have taken hold of the movement in the post-war period. The sharp decline in 1926 may indicate that most of the eligible institutions had already established departments or introduced courses; or, on the other hand, it may indicate that the popularity of the movement itself is declining, and that the next few years will mark a period of intensive rather than extensive effort.

TABLE XVI
Institutions Introducing Religious Education for the First Time:

1920.....	7	institutions
1921.....	10	institutions
1922.....	16	institutions
1923.....	19	institutions
1924.....	23	institutions
1925.....	26	institutions
1926.....	16	institutions

THE COLLEGES OF CANADA

The Affiliated College, to which references have been made earlier, came upon the scene in the States as an innovation. In Canada, the plan has been in operation much longer and on a much more inclusive scale—indeed it is one of the marks that distinguishes the Canadian institutions from those of the United States; at the same time it furnishes the point of

18. Chassell, Clara F., "Religious Education in Institutions of Higher Learning in the United States," *Religious Education*, XIII (1918), 160, 166

most striking resemblance to those of the British Isles. At the University of Toronto, for example:

"The presidents of these associated colleges—the term college being used in a more general sense than in the United States, applied not only to arts colleges, but also, e.g., to theological seminaries—are ex-officio members of the university council and senate. . . . Each college establishes its social and religious requirements without conflicting with others. University honors are open to all."¹⁹

Several church bodies have thus been represented for many years at the University of Toronto, McGill University, the University of Manitoba, etc. The last named developed along much the same lines as the University of London, the university proper constituting only an examining body; the instructional force was composed of the faculties of four colleges, Roman Catholic, Methodist, Episcopal, and Presbyterian, respectively. This type of organization, long in existence, no doubt greatly facilitated in many institutions such reconstruction of curriculum or administration as was demanded by the recent union of certain church bodies.

It would have been instructive and profitable to have presented in this survey figures indicating the general scope and progress of the movement in the Dominion of Canada. It has not proved feasible, however, to include such a section in the present study. Our limited correspondence with some of the institutions in Canada indicates that there is no uniform practice among either the colleges or the theological schools in the development of religious education courses. The Anglican Theological Colleges of Canada, together with other denominational colleges which are affiliated with the universities, provide at present courses that are variously denominated, "Religious Education and Social Service," "Religious Pedagogy," "Child Psychology," "Organization and Manage-

ment of Sunday Schools," "The Psychology of Religion," and "The Philosophy and Psychology of Education." At the United Church College of Halifax the courses are reported as including: ". . . Educational Psychology, Principles of Teaching, as well as the study of Sunday-School Organization and Administration. Lectures are also given on the religious training of adolescents and the young people's religious program." At McMaster University, Toronto, a number of courses bearing only generally upon the problems of religious education are being given. Our correspondent points out this general position regarding religious education:

"Our aim is the non-professional aim. We do give some work leading to the M. A. degree which is largely theoretical. We endeavor to lay the foundations for future professional work in professional schools both in education and in theology. . . . Our courses in general education are cultural rather than professional."

Another correspondent expresses the fear that undergraduate courses may become substitutes for adequate professional training and that they may tend to identify religious education with methodology. Wesley College, which is affiliated with the University of Manitoba in Winnipeg, has succeeded in introducing into the calendar, ". . . a minor for the third and fourth years of the University B. A. course. A minor calls for four hours per week throughout the college year, i. e., from September to April. The number of students choosing it is rapidly increasing. . . . The aim is to give a training that will provide a suitable foundation for any specialization necessary for actual leadership."

OPPOSITION AND MISGIVINGS.

It scarcely needs to be said that the spread of religious education in the curricula of the colleges has not gone forward without opposition and conflict. A college president, for example, who replied to the Commission of 1912 that "religious leadership is an art or gift not to

19. Stearns, Wallace N., "Religious and Moral Education in the Universities and Colleges in the United States," *Religious Education*, I (1907), 228.

be improved by study," was giving expression to a philosophical point of view well summed up by another college man who wrote in 1917: "It (the Department of Religious Education) must aim at a practical application of Christ's teachings, being largely inspirational." The issue here raised as to the extent to which scientific methods should be used in the colleges in training religious leaders is by no means a dead issue; in one form or another it has been present at every stage of the development. On the other hand, some critics have regarded religious education as not sufficiently scientific to be worthy of inclusion in a college curriculum: "Where the Department of Education is allowed a free hand," wrote Miss Laura Wild in 1914, "the opprobrium attached to Sunday-School teaching is considered too great for an academic institution to face." Many educators felt, and not without reason, that a great gulf was fixed between Sunday-School teaching, as they knew it, and scientific education.

It is interesting to note that the same objection was sometimes raised toward general education a generation or two ago. Professor Irving F. Wood of Smith College explained why most colleges for women in 1916 had not yet offered courses in religious education: "The subject is new, properly equipped teachers are rare, and the content and method of a course adapted to college needs is yet a matter of experiment." There were still others who objected to the introduction of courses in the technique of teaching religion because they felt such intrusion to be out of harmony with the aim and function of a liberal college. One leader wrote: "All available time should be taken for theoretical studies. To take any precious time for vocational work would seem almost a sacrilege." "Our courses are not intended to prepare our students to do anything," wrote a college president in answer to Professor Athearn's questionnaire. Although these

are extreme statements, they represent a considerable body of sentiment that the cultural aims of a college were endangered by the introduction of religious education. Effective arguments against this objection were not wanting. J. Percival Huget²⁰ expressed his judgment that a college could offer courses affording preparation for leadership in religious education without becoming a divinity school or a normal college as readily as it could offer courses in biology, anatomy, chemistry and physics without becoming a technical, medical or engineering school. It was frequently pointed out that a precedent was at hand in the elaborate departments of education already established in most liberal colleges. Professor Edward C. Moore expressed his conviction that "education must be vocationalized throughout. An education built upon the vocational motive broadly enough construed to enable the young person to acquire the elements of his entire work in life would be far more truly cultural than the formal education to which we misapply that adjective."²¹

STANDARDS IN COLLEGE DEPARTMENTS.

It is not possible to trace here the emergence and growth of departmental standards in various types of colleges. Reference has already been made to recommendations made by the commission appointed by the Religious Education Association in 1914. How rapidly the standards there suggested influenced actual practice in the colleges could be determined only at the cost of much diligent research. Betts, as late as 1920, felt justified in reporting, after surveying eighty church-founded colleges, that ". . . the professional side of religious education is receiving but little attention."²² In the same article he urged

20. "The Organization of College Courses in Religious Education," *Religious Education*, VII (1912), 164-168.

21. "Religious Training and Vocational Studies," *Religious Education*, XII (1917), 114-122.

22. Betts, George H., "The Curriculum and the College Department of Religion," *Religious Education*, XV (1920), 257-263.

that students should be trained in the "principles of religious education, method of teaching religion, the curriculum of religious education, and church-school organization and administration."

A shift in emphasis was gradually taking place as is evidenced in an article by Coe published during the same year.²³ He called attention to the fact that the present students of religious education were being prepared merely for amateur and leisure-time interests, and urged the colleges to adopt the policy of training experts in religious education for the church schools, while at the same time seeking to raise the level of the religious outlook of those who did not contemplate a professional career. To this end he made the following recommendation for courses in religious education in a four year college curriculum:

"Educational Psychology, 3 hours a week for a year; Teaching the Christian Religion, 2 hours a week for a year; History of Education in the United States, 3 hours a week for a half year; Administration of Christian Education, 2 hours a week for a half year. The requisite course in Bible and the Christian Religion may be expected to require a minimum total of 10 semester hours."²⁴

These recommendations challenged the amateurish attitude toward religious education, and further suggested that a student should devote from one-eighth to one-fourth of his college work to courses in that field. This general plan took form the next year in a recommendation by the Commission on Courses and Departments that "... the colleges upon religious foundations pursue the policy of offering sufficient work in Bible, the Christian Religion, and various subjects related to religious education, to prepare their students for intelligent support and leadership of religious education in their home churches." It was further recommended that the colleges devote thirty semester hours to this end. The subjects together

with the proposed time evaluation, were as follows: "Bible, 6 hours; Teaching Value of Bible, 3 hours; Curriculum, 2 hours; The Christian Religion, 3 hours; Educational Psychology, 3 hours; The Teaching Process with Observation, 4 hours; Organization and Administration, 3 hours; History of Religious Education in America, 3 hours."²⁵

This study might properly have gone on to deal with the emergence of new educational procedures, the evidence of their appearance and spread in college classroom activities, and the periods during which their effect upon the teaching of religion has been pronounced. The most pertinent facts which came to light in the survey of current courses have been dealt with elsewhere.²⁶ One would like to know further just when the *group-discussion* technique, which is receiving wide attention among educators and social leaders alike,²⁷ began to assume a separate status and how largely it has been studied and adopted as a definite tool by college teachers of religious education; in exactly what respects the courses which earlier felt the influence of the *project method*²⁸ are now being shaped by the critical and exacting procedures of the

25. Report of Joint Committee of (a) Sunday School Council of Evangelical Denominations and Church Boards of Education, and (b) Religious Education Association, Commission on Courses and Departments of Religious Education in Colleges, *Religious Education*, XVI (1921), 84.

26. See Chapter V.

27. Elliott, Harrison S., *The Why and How of Group Discussion*, Association Press, New York, 1923; also, *The Significance of Process in the Progress of Christianity*, Inaugural Address as Professor in the Union Theological Seminary.

Follett, Mary P., *Creative Experience*, Longmans Green and Co.

Lindeman, Eduard C., *Social Discovery*, New Republic, 1926.

Dewey, John, *The Public and Its Problems*, Henry Holt & Co., 1927.

Bane, C. L., "Lecture vs. Class Discussion Method of College Teaching," *School and Society*, (1925), 21:300-2.

Foster, "Lecturing vs. Class Discussion, Reply to C. L. Bane," *School and Society*, (1925), 21:386-7.

See also files and publications of *The Inquiry*, 129 East 52nd Street, New York City, e. g., "Creative Discussion," "Gearing in for Common Tasks," "Why the Church?," etc

28. See "Symposium on the Project Method," *Teachers College Record*, (1921) 22: No. 4.

Shayer, E. L., *Project Principle in Religious Education*, University of Chicago Press.

23. Coe, George A., "Policies for College Instruction in Religious Education," *Religious Education*, XV (1920), 167-172.

24. Coe, George A., *Op. cit.*, p. 172.

experimental attack²⁹; whether many of the experiments now in progress in the colleges began as attempts to make thoroughgoing curricular reconstructions, or only with the aim of making distasteful subject matter more palatable³⁰; in what respects, if at all, the felt needs of students shaped the early attempts of college faculties to provide a more comprehensive outlook upon a college career by means of the *orientation* courses³¹; to what degree the emphasis on the *measurement* of character and personality growth³² has influenced the building of courses in departments of religious education; to what extent, if at all, these departments have in turn affected the enlargement of offerings relating to *personality adjustments*, *vocational guidance*, and *mental hygiene*³³; whether the teachers in these departments, presumably active in the guidance and counseling of students who are perplexed relative to religious problems, have availed themselves of the skills now widely used by social workers in making *case studies*³⁴; when the techniques of *sur-*

*veying*³⁵, long used by the sociologist as instruments for discovering and exploring societal needs and institutional shortcomings, began to receive serious attention and to find a useful place in college courses of religious education; and finally what notice has been taken of such stirrings in the off-campus world as those set in motion by recent student conventions, the labor colleges, the youth movements in other lands, the experimental schools with their emphasis upon "creativity" and freer methods in the guidance of children, the Danish Folk High Schools³⁶, the adult education movement³⁷, and a score of kindred enterprises which any comprehensive treatment of educational forces must needs take account of today and which, in the opinion of many, religion dare not neglect on peril of its life. These developments—and there are others—are upon us, though it would be difficult to date any one of them as a distinct factor in the college courses on religion. They are accompanied by a prolific literature at once critical and informative,—indicative of the strong life that is in them. The historian, asking his questions concerning origins, dates, and sequences of events, must be content to find his answers wrapped up with many others.

No other single event in recent years seems quite so promising or prophetic as the announcement in 1925 of "An Experiment in College Religious Education"³⁸ at Whittier College in California. Two distinct departures are involved in this experiment. The announcement has described, first of all, a "Correlation Course" in which it is planned that "the specialized knowledge secured from all

29. Miner, "A New Type of College Course," *School and Society*, (1925) 22:416-22.

Watson, Goodwin B., *The Measurement of Fair-Mindedness*, Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 176 (1925).

Jones, "Experimental Studies of College Teaching," *Archives of Psychology*, 1923.

Brooks, "Need for Research on College Curriculum," *School and Society*, (1925) 22:692-6.

30. *Survey Graphic*, LVIII, 5 (June, 1927), Entire Number on "Clashing Conceptions in Education." *Progressive Education*, IV, 4 (October-November-December, 1927), Entire Number on "The Changing College."

31. Kelly, Amy, "Orientation Courses," *Progressive Education*, IV (1927), 4:272-277.

32. May and Hartshorne, "Tests of Character and Personality Growth," *Psychological Bulletin*, July, 1926.

Watson, Goodwin B., "Character Tests," *Religious Education*, XXII (May, 1926), 500-4.

Kilpatrick, Wm. H., "How Character Comes," *The World Tomorrow*, Sept., 1922.

Ibid., *The Scaffolding of Character*, Woman's Press, August, 1925.

33. Laird, Donald A., "Reaction of College Students to Mental Hygiene," *Mental Hygiene*, V (1923), 271.

Hopkins, L. B., "Personnel Procedure in Education," *Educational Record Supplement*, October, 1926.

Bender, Harold H., Cutler, Anna A., Hazlett, Olive C., Root, Robert K., "The Selection, Retention, and Promotion of Undergraduates," *Bulletin of The American Association of University Professors*, October, 1926.

34. Harper, Ernest B., "The Case Study Method," *Religious Education*, XXII (May, 1927), 505-512.

35. Swift, Arthur L., Jr., "Surveying," *Religious Education*, XXII (May, 1927), 494-499.

See also note on Bower, W. C., p. 40.

36. Hart, Joseph K., *Light from the North*, Henry Holt & Co., 1926.

37. *Ibid.*, *Adult Education*, Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1927.

Artman, J. M., and Jacobs, J. A., "Recent Tendencies in Adult Education and Their Significance for Religious Education," *Religious Education*, XXII (November, 1927), 963-971.

38. See article by J. Herschel Coffin, *Religious Education*, Vol. XX, No. 3 (June, 1925), pp. 234-239.

departments—chemistry or history, literature or sociology—will be brought to bear upon the analysis of a series of pressing problems.” Attention to the place and function of religion will be given a large place, so that it, along with other interests of life, may help “to render higher education ‘functional’.” This is the one course required of all students. It aims to prepare them for the vocation of living. The philosophy underlying this course, and indeed the entire effort of the college, is distinctly Christian, in the sense that an attempt is here going forward to make a Christian evaluation of the facts learned in the classroom and of their meaning as applied to life situations. The correlation course is outlined as follows, each topic being treated in a three-hour course which runs through the year:

Freshman year...Human Issues

Sophomore year...The Psychological Aspect of Human Issues

Junior year.....The Basis of Social Progress

Senior year.....The Christian Basis of Reconstruction

As a part of the plan, the Project course furnishes “an independent study

plan, as well as an honors course.” It is not vocational, in the sense that it seeks as Antioch does to provide a work-study scheme; nor does it seek to outline a definite subject matter course as do most “honors courses.” Rather it seeks to guide the student into the study of those fields for which interest, proven ability, and vocational enthusiasm fit him. It is to be undertaken at present by not more than 25% of the upper classmen, and, in the case of each man, only after a careful self study through the use of a “self-measurement chart” has been followed by the approval of a committee consisting of the heads of departments. An apprenticeship with firms in the community is possible for such as might find it profitable “from the scholastic point of view,” but such work will be given no credit. Dean J. Herschel Coffin, who is the chief author of this effort to achieve “synchronized education,” believes it promises a better emotional and mental outfit for the student of the future who must face such problems as marriage, vocation, the use of leisure time, community citizenship, and religion.

CHAPTER VIII

THE CONTEMPORARY ACADEMIC SETTING

Obviously the college teaching of religious education cannot be separated from the total college situation. The administration of the college, its provision for the religious life of its students, their attitudes and interests will all influence the work done by a department of religious education. Indeed it may be that the fraternity life of the institution or the academic freedom allowed the faculty will determine the effectiveness of the teaching of religious education more truly than the choice of text-books or the organization of courses within the department itself. For this reason a brief consideration of some aspects of the present situation in the colleges of the United States has been made a part of the investigation of the status of religious education as a subject for undergraduate study. While recognizing the wide divergence between colleges of different types and different geographical locations there seem to be definite areas of controversy and of question which appear fairly generally in the colleges of this country. It is to these areas that this study has been confined.

COLLEGE AIMS

At no point is there hotter controversy than over the question of the aim or purpose of the college. To judge by the catalogues, the official statements are frequently vague, often contradictory and unconnected with the actual policies of administration or teaching. Gavit, in his book *College*, gives ten distinct points of view held by students, students' families and college officials as to what the college is for; while a Committee of Student Secretaries of the Y. M. C. A. reports a different answer for almost every person questioned as to the aim of a college. For the most part knowledge and tech-

nical skill are heavily stressed, with a gesture in the direction of social attitudes and responsibilities consisting of abstract and high-sounding phrases. In matters religious the aims of the college range from the inculcation of the tenets of a given denomination through the provision of Christian leadership, to an apparently careful ignoring of the subject.

F. J. Kelly, in *The American Arts College*, declares that the college should aim to provide (1) mastery of the tools of learning, (2) a social viewpoint, which means appreciation of one's responsibility for social well-being and progress, a perspective for social judgments, intellectual training and self-mastery, (3) together with such vocational training as may be found in the field of general culture. Few colleges, however, have as definite an idea of their function as this and many question the assumptions involved, particularly those in regard to vocational training. For here is an issue as yet unsettled: Should the college emphasis be vocational or cultural? To go further, should the college concern itself exclusively with the intellectual training of its students or should it accept responsibility for their personal and social attitudes as well? There seems to be uncertainty also regarding the distinctive educational function of the college as distinguished from the high school, the technical school and university. Meanwhile, the relation of the college to the social order of which it is a part raises another series of questions. Is the college an agency for the maintenance of the *status quo* or should it train men and women to expect, meet, and, possibly, work for social change? Clearly the matter of college aims is one which runs through the entire fabric of college life and organization. Vagueness at this point is likely to

mean confusion in many areas of college procedure.

ADMINISTRATION

The accepted form of college administration, like the traditional college aim, is sharply questioned. In general the administrative pattern of the American college is as follows. A board of trustees, composed of influential members of the alumni or the community, is responsible to the state for the financial and educational management of the college. The president of the college is the executive of the board, responsible to it, and its agent for dealing with the faculty and students. The faculty is the teaching body, hired by the president for the trustees. To the faculty may be delegated, in varying degree, the control of academic affairs; and the faculty may in turn delegate certain powers to the students. Around the edges may be alumni bodies of one kind or another, influential according to the number and position of the group represented. In fact, one administrative problem in a number of institutions is the effective use of the growing influence and interest of the alumni in college affairs. The final control, however, remains in the hands of the trustees, most of them laymen in the field of education. This highly centralized, autocratic government has resulted in the rapid physical expansion of the colleges and in a standardization and commercializing of the academic world as evidenced (1) in the fact that the college is judged by the ability of its students to "get ahead" after graduation, (2) in the emphasis on numbers and smooth-running machinery, and (3) in the tendency of colleges to do as other colleges do, regardless of local situation and distinctive tradition. Such control has often meant the limitation of academic freedom of speech and investigation to suit the bias of president or trustees.

Students, faculty and alumni are protesting at this type of administrative con-

trol. Several experiments are under way: changes in the composition of the board of trustees, for instance; and the establishment of faculty councils with direct access to the trustees and power to nominate, or even appoint, candidates to vacant academic positions, including that of president. There are those who advocate the abolition of the office of president, the limitation of the activities of the trustees to those of financial administrators, and the placing of control in the hands of the faculty, or even the faculty and students. In any case, the criticism of the present system is sufficiently general and sufficiently pointed to warrant the president of Columbia University in giving several pages in his *Annual Report for 1926* to a description and justification of the administrative organization of that institution.

THE FACULTY

The active participation of the faculty in the formulation of college policies is viewed from diametrically opposite positions both by persons within and those without the faculty membership. On the one hand, it is claimed that such activity is necessary to the development and leadership of the faculty members; on the other, that they should be protected from the routine and crises of administration in order to give all their time and energy to research and teaching. The second position is met by the rejoinder that part, at least, of the sterility and over-specialization which so often characterize college teaching is due to this seclusion of the faculty from the real issues of their world.

Moreover, let a professor handle controversial topics in class room, general lecture or publication and he is likely to find a consideration of his relation to the administration unavoidable. Much of the work of the American Association of University Professors consists in the investigation of situations in which some faculty member feels that academic free-

dom has been curtailed. The Civil Liberties Union, too, maintains a department for the protection of free speech in the colleges. But academic freedom involves also freedom of investigation and freedom of personal affiliation and utterance on the part of the faculty member when he stands as an individual and not as the representative of an institution. The American Association of University Professors took the stand in 1925 that there should be no restriction on freedom of investigation unless it interfered with teaching or unless some previous arrangement had been made; that each professor is morally bound not to discuss in class controversial subjects outside his field; that extra-mural utterances are subject to the restrictions resting upon any citizen; and that if such utterances raise questions as to the fitness of the person to hold a position in the college the matter should be brought before the faculty committee of his own institution. The abrupt dismissal of an offending professor is not the only method for curtailing undesirable activities. Failure to secure promotions, lack of support for departmental programs and other less conspicuous means may be used. At present the field in which the need for freedom is most acute is that of the social sciences, though the physical sciences are a sore point in some localities.

What is to be the relation of the faculty to the student body? There are urgent pleas from both groups for more direct, intimate and stimulating contacts. Conference and discussion as against the lecture in the class room, the advisory system, the tutorial system, and cooperative committee work, are efforts in this direction. As yet they are beginnings only; while faculty and students for the most part pursue their separate and, often, antagonistic ways. Perhaps from these small beginnings will come, however, the rescue of the faculty from their role of purveyors of subject matter and the recognition of vigorous and dynamic

teaching as a necessary qualification for entrance to, and advancement in, the faculty ranks.

THE CURRICULUM

Whatever else about our colleges may be approved, the curriculum is usually under condemnation. Educational conservative and liberal agree that present curricula are not producing results among the students in knowledge of facts, eagerness to learn, or ability to meet the changing demands of life. As soon as one moves on to suggestions for improvement the unanimity vanishes and there are almost as many opinions as to what should or should not be done to the curriculum as there are persons interested. Undoubtedly some of this confusion is due to the uncertainty regarding the aims and function of the college in the social and educational system. Glenn Frank gives as two further reasons the sudden increase in knowledge, as yet unassimilated, and the over-specialization in teaching which has followed. The increase in the size and social range of the student body has a part, too, in rendering the traditional curricula inadequate.

Professional educators are not the only dissatisfied group; the students sharply protest the dryness and the ineffectiveness of curricular activities. Nor are they content merely to object; in a number of instances committees of students have drawn up plans for curricular reorganization. The Dartmouth Senior Report is probably the most widely known of these and is, perhaps, the most drastic in its criticism of existing conditions. The Harvard Student Council Committee on Education approves in principle the tutorial system in vogue at Harvard but offers a number of suggestions for the improvement of its method of procedure. The Educational Survey Committee of Wesleyan University advocates the establishment of honors courses in each department, experimentation with the tutorial system, and the introduction of courses

bearing on present social issues such as the Cause and Cure of War.

Few colleges have escaped the necessity for some renovation of their curriculum. A smaller number have ventured on fairly drastic departures from the accepted routine. Orientation courses, as at Columbia University, the University of Minnesota, and the University of Chicago, have been established to meet the bewilderment of underclassmen as they encounter the range and variety of the fields of human knowledge and the mysteries of college existence. Whittier College carries this principle of orientation, or coordination, straight through the college course.¹ Smith and Swarthmore, among others, are experimenting with honors courses in an effort to encourage concentrated and creative work on the part of able juniors and seniors by opening to them all the resources of the college and freeing them from routine requirements in regard to class attendance and courses of study. The tutorial system is being tried at Harvard and Princeton. Antioch College has a scheme combining work and study in a unique fashion. An experimental college of two hundred and fifty students has been established as a separate entity within the University of Wisconsin under the leadership of Alexander Meiklejohn.

With all these significant efforts at curriculum reform, and this is by no means an exhaustive list, there are still a number of vital questions awaiting an answer. What, for instance, ought to be the organizing principle in the construction of curricula; the transmission of culture, vocational preparation, preparation for adequate life choices, or something different from any of these? Should the college seek to give a diffused knowledge in many different fields of human inquiry or an intensive interest in some one field? And above all, what will secure the eager, intelligent participation of students in intellectual activities?

THE STUDENT BODY, METHODS OF SELECTION

It might be well to consider what, as a matter of fact, are the characteristics of the student body for whom administration, faculty and curriculum presumably exist. One outstanding feature is its size. There have never been so many students in the United States in college as there are today. In the liberal arts colleges the enrollment has increased over 500% since 1890. Between 1910 and 1922 a gain of 125% took place in the enrollment of men and of 160% in that of women.² The selection of students has, therefore, become an increasingly important matter both to the college and to the entering student. At present there are six methods of selection used, either in combination with one another or separately: entrance examinations, representing units of academic work; certificates from accredited secondary schools; a superior high school record; mental tests; testimonials and ratings as to character and personality traits; and a personal interview with the candidate by a representative of the college. Each of the last three methods usually appears in combination with some other means of testing the student's qualifications. The investigations of the Association of American University Professors show a definite trend toward great flexibility in regard to academic requirements on the part of the colleges and a greater strictness in regard to personal qualifications. But which of the various methods of selection or what combination of them will predict most accurately the success of a student in college is still an open question. Educational conviction is also sharply divided as to whether intellectual ability should be the sole basis for admission and if

2. Note: The proportion of youth in college has increased as well as the total number. According to Dr. Rubinow in "The Revolt of a Middle-Aged Father," *Atlantic Monthly*, May, 1927, "In 1870 only one out of 150 youths was in college. In 1880, one out of 100. In 1890, one out of 75. In 1900, one out of 50. In 1910, one out of 40. In 1920, one out of 20. And in the year of our Lord 1927 the proportion is probably near to one out of 12."

1. See Chap. VII, p. 64.

not, what other qualities should be considered. And how is a college to pursue a frankly selective, not to say competitive, policy in securing its students and at the same time maintain a democratic and co-operative spirit among those students once they are enrolled?

THE STUDENT BODY, INTELLECTUAL ATTITUDES

Although the number seeking entrance to the colleges is constantly enlarging, enthusiasm for the things of the mind does not seem to keep pace. Few young people, according to Gavit, go to college primarily to study; they go for "college life." Academic work becomes then merely the price paid for the enjoyment of the social contacts and experiences which make up that "life." It is easy to find denunciation of, and contempt for, the intellectual attitude of the majority of college students. The accusations are sweeping but tend to center on the mental conventionality and docility which mark the American student body. Whatever mental effort is put forth, so say the objectors, is concentrated upon equipment for getting ahead socially and financially rather than upon the search for truth, the enjoyment of beauty or the service of the common good.

The minority who feel themselves to be, and are pointed out as, the intellectual leaven of our institutions of learning, complain bitterly that they are often unable to secure from the colleges satisfaction for their mental hunger. Futile academic requirements, insistence by the faculty on reproductive rather than creative work and the traditional student distrust of intellectual enthusiasm block the way. Meanwhile the tendency of college authorities to view the curriculum as the responsibility and concern solely of the faculty and administration weakens the interest of both minority and majority groups in matters associated by them with the strictly academic aspects of their life. Indeed students sometimes claim

that they are forced into extra-curricular activities in order to find outlet for their intellectual initiative and interest. The vigorous and thoughtful work which, in some institutions, is put into the college paper, the programs of the dramatic societies and glee clubs, the work of the Christian Associations, etc. gives validity to this assertion. In other places it would seem largely an easy alibi.

What can be done to render our colleges more intellectually stimulating? Break the hold of the majority attitude upon the standards, organization, and enthusiasms of the colleges, say some, by concentrating upon the minority who come to college to study and to think and leaving the majority to fit into the situation as best they may. An obvious remedy is improvement in the personnel and training of the teaching staff. The various experiments with the curriculum are, of course, efforts in this direction. Dr. Coe is convinced that the colleges must free themselves from their present conformity to the standards and social conditions of the non-academic world. If the colleges were clearer as to their responsibility for the intellectual vigor and welfare of the nation the importance of intellectual attitudes and enthusiasms might be more obvious to the "student mind."

THE STUDENT BODY, SOME POINTS AT ISSUE

In a number of institutions the question eliciting the most serious mental effort on the part of students is that of military training in the colleges. The recent increase in the number of R. O. T. C. units, the efforts of the War Department to establish compulsory military training in schools and colleges, the introduction of new types of military training such as Air Units, Munition Battalions and Naval R. O. T. C. have forced this issue to the front. Involved with local aspects of military training are such larger matters as freedom of speech upon the cam-

pus, a citizen's obligations to his country, the militarization of our educational system and the whole subject of war as a social and religious evil. Not only have gatherings of students such as the Y. W. C. A. and Y. M. C. A. conferences and the Fellowship of Youth for Peace gone on record as opposed to compulsory military training but in several instances, notably the College of the City of New York, undergraduates have succeeded in forcing the authorities to abolish at least the compulsory features of the training. In institutions where such a campaign is under way can the Department of Religious Education ignore the religious implications of the struggle and how long will possible activities and support be tolerated in places where the War Department is influential with the administration?

Football, the outstanding game in college athletics, is also under student scrutiny. For the majority of students it is still the absorbing interest of the autumn term. There are those, however, who question its sovereignty. The time and money spent in its maintenance; its huge receipts; the over-excitement of students and general public by so temporary an interest; the relative position assigned football hero and scholar have all challenged the more thoughtful students. There seems no inclination to banish athletics from student life, but a growing desire to prevent sports from becoming the major concern of a college. Student activity in this regard is chiefly limited to passing resolutions against the more obvious evils of college athletics and discussing possible remedies, few of which have been put into action as yet.

The organization of the social life of the college, particularly the position of the fraternity or its equivalent club or society is another matter about which small groups of students are perturbed. Crooked politics, poor academic work, undemocratic distinctions within the college body and, in some cases, lowered

moral standards are attributed to the fraternity system. Extravagant standards of expenditure and artificial types of social activity are also laid at its door. The need for units within which a student may find intimate and congenial companionship, the inadequate provision in a number of institutions for student housing, the established contacts with students from other colleges and with the alumni are produced as arguments in favor of the status quo. Student agitation by those within and without the fraternities has resulted in many places in the elimination of the more flagrant evils of "rushing" and in an increase in the number of students who remain of choice outside the fraternity group. For the rest, possibly the most that can be said is that an uneasy feeling exists that the social life within the colleges needs overhauling and that the fraternities or their equivalents are the points at which to begin.

Closely connected with the matter of social organization, perhaps an integral part of it, is student government. Viewed by some as a panacea for college ills, it appears to others as an outstanding example of the unwillingness of the American student to accept responsibility. In a number of institutions student government, including the honor system, is a dead issue—it has been tried, say faculty and students, and proved a failure. Occasionally, at least, this is because student government has been merely a device to relieve the faculty of the duty of proctoring classes and dormitories. Most student governments exist under some kind of grant of power made by the administration to the student organization involved. The success or failure of the undertaking is largely determined by the willingness of the administration to abide by its grant. As President Neilson of Smith College has remarked, "Clearly a system of student government which was subject to having taken out of its hand at any moment any matter on which the administration had a different opinion

would soon collapse. If the administration trusts the Student Government Association to make decisions on these matters it must be prepared to stand by what it does—its mistakes as well as its wisdom.” Not all deans and presidents are equally courageous, so that student government often dies from a sense of futility or is punctuated by explosions like that at Princeton over the automobile prohibition. At Mount Holyoke, college government has taken the place of student government, with faculty and students associated in the organization and administration of college life.

THE RELIGIOUS LIFE OF STUDENTS

The aspect of student life most obviously connected with the work of a department of religious education is its religious attitudes and activities. Yet few matters are more difficult to cover in a general report, for to the marked differences in the religious policy of the various institutions must be added the wide diversity in so personal a matter among students in each institution. In the main the following types of student religion may be distinguished: the doctrinal fundamentalist; the moral conventionalist; the evangelical, emphasizing sin and salvation; the educational, which is concerned with the development of religious experience as an integrated part of life; the social, where the interest is primarily in the social application of religion; and the vaguely mystical. Of these, fundamentalism and conventionalism tend to disappear after the freshman year; while evangelicalism is strong in a limited number of places. The prevailing type of student religion is the educational, accompanied by varying degrees of social interest. This year (1927) there seems evidence of a reaching after an individual emotional experience of a mystical order.

Considerable time, thought and money are expended for the cultivation of the religious life of students. The college

provides chapel, either compulsory or voluntary, and sometimes courses in religion. The Church endeavors through the activities of local churches, through the labors of student pastors, through the maintenance of “Schools of Religion” to minister to student communities. The Christian Associations have a program of worship, recreation, study and service planned and carried through, at least in theory, by the students themselves. The effectiveness of these efforts varies greatly in different institutions. Compulsory chapel is an issue in many places, with student opposition based often on its religiously harmful results. College courses in religion range from “pipes” and “preachy” courses, poorly taught and frequently compulsory, to those dealing with the life problems of students in vigorous and helpful fashion. Several recent studies indicate that the Church is a potent factor in the lives of students as judged by regular attendance and the ranking given the Church in a student list of character influences. On the other hand student criticism of the Church is vociferous on the score of its conventional respectability, its divisions, its ineffectiveness in the face of social evils, and its stifling of the search for truth and adventurous living under the cloak of dogmatic certainty. The position given the Christian Associations, like that assigned the Church, depends upon the institution and the individual. In some colleges they are the rallying point for the alert, socially-minded students; in others the Association is merely one of many competing religious organizations or the social center for the non-fraternity group.

What part does religion play in the everyday life of students? The impossibility of an accurate and detailed answer to such a question is evident. Observers agree, however, that many students fail to relate religion and the moral problems which arise in their immediate experience; still less do they relate religion to the problems of the larger social

groups—political, economic, and racial. The limitation of students' interests to the college campus, the over-development of college activities, campus standards of success, a traditional lack of interest in religion, the over emphasis of college loyalty which discourages searching criticism of college life, and the revolt of young people against convention, all play their part in preventing the effective functioning of religion in the daily life of students. Against this evidence is the testimony of many individual students that religion is not only an actual force in everyday living but that the years in college have strengthened its power. Such gatherings as the Milwaukee Conference with its vigorous interest in the relation of Christianity to the problems of war, race relations, and industrial conflict are proof that some students are alive to the social as well as the individual aspects of religion.

Complacency, nevertheless, is decidedly out of place as one takes a general view of the religious life of students. The need for improvement in the selection and training of teachers of religion is outstanding, as is also an increased recognition of the teaching and counselling function of professors in all departments. Since the character of students is influenced by their total college experience, it is futile to expect one department or agency, however efficient, to shoulder the entire responsibility for the religious life of the college. Not only should the administration recognize this general obligation but the various religious agencies must present a cooperative approach and integrated program. Greater student initiative and expression, both in courses of religion and religious activities, are needed, too, if students are to realize that religion is still in the making and that they are called to a part in its making.

CONCLUSION

In differing proportions and from various angles these currents of thought and

action flow through the college communities of this country and may be expected to condition the work of a department of religious education. But what contribution will such a department make, in its turn, to the controversies and experiments going on about it? As a comparatively recent subject for undergraduate study it might well display a flexibility to student need, a closeness of contact with the practical issues of its field and a venturesome willingness to try promising methods of organization and procedure that would be difficult for departments with older and more binding traditions.

By the very nature of its interests the religious education department has an opportunity for close connection between community problems and college study. Student field work in local church schools opens up one such connection. But if religion is the integrating factor in life, that which determines and evaluates one's relationships with people as well as with God the connection is closer than any immediate "town and gown" activities. How can a department concerned with the achievement of religious living leave untouched the standards of success upon the local campus, the relationship between faculty and students, the issues that grip the student and faculty mind, whether they be a change in the curriculum, the undue emphasis on football, or the relation of the United States to Mexico? No one portion of the college community by itself can solve all, or perhaps any one, of the many puzzles with which this community is faced. But surely a department whose subject matter deals so largely with the learning of cooperation by different groups of people, whose methods call for constant experimentation to meet new and untried situations, and whose teachers are fellow learners with their students may be expected to contribute a technique for drawing people together in a search for solutions and an

open-minded testing of promising possibilities.

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CHAPTER IX

THE MAJOR TRENDS AND PROBLEMS

In this survey, the religious education courses in the colleges of the United States have been examined with reference to their extent, aims, organization, academic ranking, methods, literature, leadership, and—in a small degree—history. Pertinent comment has been made on the college situation in general, and brief references added regarding the development of similar courses in the colleges of Canada. The results of the study must be seen against the background of the present college situation on the one hand, and of a quarter century's changes on the other. In the light of the survey, it is in point to summarize certain general trends, and to indicate some of the problems involved.

I

1. RAPIDITY OF GROWTH

The development of collegiate courses in this field has been recent, rapid, and widespread. This is the most obvious conclusion of the study, and the evidence is impressive. Professor Athearn's survey of 1914¹ gives a basis for comparison with the present extent of instruction in religious education, as it has been reported in Chapter II. This comparison reveals a remarkable development in the last twelve years. In 1926, for example, four and one-half times as many institutions were offering courses in the theory and practice of teaching of religion as there were in 1914. Other comparisons, with proportions quite as striking, might be cited.

2. ACADEMIC RANKING.

A small place, proportionately, has been made for the courses in religious education, in respect both to the curriculum and to the number of students enrolled. A majority of the institutions which re-

plied, offer only one or two courses in religious education; and the enrollments are of such size in a large number of these courses, as to inspire grave doubts regarding the popularity and significance of the courses offered.² The classes are primarily for upper-classmen, and the number of required courses is not large. Alignment with the department of education on the one hand, and the Biblical department on the other, still constitutes a problem in many schools; apparently the department of religious education is still looked upon in many quarters as being neither fish, flesh, nor fowl. In both large and small institutions, the question of whether to establish "a department of religious education," is many-sided; such departments are already numerous, but their standards vary widely. The use of this title for both courses and departments seems to be growing.

3. EQUIPMENT OF TEACHERS.

The number of those teachers who have the rank of professor is large, but the number of those giving full time to religious education is small. It must be noted, however, that many who give their time in part to the technical phases of the subject, devote the remainder to the subjects which have traditionally belonged in the related fields of Biblical Literature, etc. A high degree of professional training is represented in the ranks of those teachers and instructors who have recently entered the field. It is particularly noticeable that an increasing emphasis is being placed on the educational and technical aspects of such training.³

4. RESPONSIVENESS TO NEWER METHODS

No doubt the increasing academic training represented in the ranks of present-day teachers accounts in no small de-

1. See Chapter VII, p. 56.

2. See Chapter I, p. 19.

3. See Chapter IV, p. 30.

gree for the encouraging developments in methods of instruction.⁴ One notes that the lecture method is least used, with the textbook-recitation system crowding it for lowest honors. A steady shift to more dynamic types of procedure, involving class room activities, library research and field responsibilities, is tending to bring the students of religious education to grips with real problems. It seems scarcely too much to say that no other group of facts revealed by this survey mounts to so surprising and so conclusive a total, as does the evidence on this point.

The increasing use of practice-teaching is as significant as it is hopeful. In the very nature of the case it follows that the religious education department is able by its variety of contacts, to exercise a direct and healthy influence on the social and religious institutions of its community.⁵ The organizations with which the college departments may cooperate include in their programs a wide range of activities, and an inviting field of social interaction and experimentation is opening up in many college communities.

5. LITERATURE: TEXT AND REFERENCE BOOKS

The survey of books used in connection with undergraduate courses in religious education, reveals the not surprising fact that there are almost no *texts* of collegiate grade available—at least there have not been until recently. The earlier output was divided on the whole between the teacher-training constituencies on the one hand, and the graduate or professional groups on the other. Many books have had long and deserved popularity, and have done yeoman's service in the collegiate courses; but literature prepared with an eye on either of the groups mentioned is not likely to meet all the needs of a college course. The lists of references submitted to the text-

book committee show a gratifying use of the most reliable and stimulating materials available.

II

No attempt will be made to provide a complete catalogue of the problems which have emerged in the progress of the study. Rather, those have been set down, around which the facts revealed by the survey can most profitably be organized, and which likewise seem insistent at the present and important for the future.

1. THE DILEMMA OF "VOCATIONALISM."

Current changes in college curricula diverge at many points; most of these changes, however, reflect a common perplexity concerning the problem of what is variously called the "vocational," "professional," "pre-professional," or "practical" trend in undergraduate courses. Religious education courses offer no exception in this respect. Are there to be more colleges offering majors in the field? or even the baccalaureate degree? And are these additional academic opportunities to be advertised as offering sufficient training for undertaking professional duties? If so, on what level? Or, do they merely predicate on the one hand, lay participation in religious activities, while furnishing on the other hand the background of a more thorough preparation in graduate schools for those who elect to pursue post-collegiate studies?

That the distinction between "cultural" and "professional"⁶ is losing caste among careful thinkers and administrators, only accentuates the difficulties of curriculum builders. To say that a college should offer *both elements* in its curriculum is to beg the question, and may have little effect except to keep alive a vicious dualism. There are distinctions and differences resulting from college life which cannot be ignored, and ought not to be obscured. The Oxford man does differ from the American college man,⁷ and

⁶6. See Chapter III, p. 28.

⁷7. Smith F. Tredwell, "The Formation of Spiritual Values in Oxford Education," *Religious Education*, XXI (August, 1926), 852-860.

4. See Chapter V, p. 36.

5. See Chapter V, pp. 39, 40.

within any university there are noticeable traits which set engineers apart from teachers, and classicists from social workers. But these differences are due to factors which run beyond college doors, —to the social soils which have produced the individuals, to the occupations toward which they are being bent, and to the atmosphere of the time which provides the basal quality of current preferences. The aristocracy of *cultural* education has felt the crowding and jostling of a busy age, with its multitudes of aspiring people, and its innumerable processes calling for high degrees of specialization. These highly focalized skills have a place of high preference on the current market of human abilities, and the demand for them seems almost a threat to the colleges; many fear that the latter are likely to become little more than fashionable turnstiles for the occupations.

What has the teacher of religion to offer just here? It is true that much educational practice tends to allow young people to grow up unevenly, and to leave them not only immature in the face of the most important questions they will face, but also with no awareness of moral problems and no techniques of adjustment. Perhaps the answer is in this direction: professionalism or no professionalism, let that be done which will advance the student toward mature and efficient living. Dean Hawkes⁸ of Columbia College has called attention to "the tendency . . . during the last ten years to emphasize a line of cleavage between the first two collegiate years and the last two." He later adds: "In my experience there is no question that during the first year or two of college life the students are not able to completely carry their responsibilities. They are boys, not men. . . . The problem of the first two years of college is the discovery of the existence

and nature of the intellect, the emotion, the character, the temperament, the ambition of our students." Whether valid or not, this tendency, with its corresponding emphasis upon vocational training during the latter two years of the college course, is widely at work. The Antioch work-study plan, devised originally along the lines worked out by the University of Cincinnati for engineering students, has presented its challenge not without effect. With the field thus astir, religious education leaders in collegiate circles will no doubt find need during the period just ahead for critical examination of the question, "Are collegiate religious education courses 'professional,' or 'pre-professional'? If not, what are they?"

2. RELATION TO CAMPUS PROBLEMS.

Another burning issue confronts the religious education departments. Shall these classes provide opportunity for those who enroll to gain control of their own problems of religious adjustment? How far will the immediate perplexities of college life be employed as curricular material? The instructor in the religious education courses faces a campus situation in which innumerable organizations contend for the time and attention of students; even among those which offer "counselling" service of one sort or another, there frequently is discoverable a degree of competition quite as vigorous as that among fraternities, sororities, and other social groups. Often, the situation is further complicated by the religious regulations of the school authorities, by traditional practises such as compulsory attendance at chapel or church services, or by denominational efforts carried on from a center on or near the campus. In other words, the college or university is itself a complex community in which innumerable problems are simply the order of the day. These concern all manner of human behavior and control. It is encouraging to note that forms of student participation in the management of cam-

8. Hawkes, Herbert Edwin, "The Liberal Arts College in the University." *Amherst Graduates' Quarterly*, February, 1926.

pus affairs are widely prevalent; but the complaint is often heard that faculty interference on the one side and student indifference on the other tend to center effort on rather unimportant items, while a general policy of drifting carries along vast numbers of young people who get from college experience too little of what might be its true boon—knowledge of how “to participate in their own education.”

3. PROVISION FOR PRACTICE

The trend toward practice teaching under supervision opens serious problems in many colleges. Obviously, it calls for trained supervisors, and cooperation with churches and social agencies in the local community. Many of the colleges are located in small communities; the segregation to which colleges are prone has hardened into a tradition of aloofness; town and gown mingle little, and the churches in many cases stand apart from college activities. Moreover, student teachers are likely to prove unsteady, at least through the initial period; during the initiation of new programs, the general feeling of disturbance and uncertainty may easily become one of pronounced prejudice toward innovation or experimentation. The situation is involved on another side by the fact that many of the colleges—most of them indeed—are sectarian in tradition and control, if not in spirit; as such, they find one more barrier in the way of church coöperation on a community scale. All this is to say nothing of the problems of management; of lack of building space and recreational facilities in the churches which, built for the purposes of another day, are now obsolete; of the irregular programs of the students themselves, who must be free during holiday seasons and the summer vacation.

In all cases, problems are but inverted opportunities. Sectarianism and aloofness, impervious to other influences, might well be expected to yield before the

more practical effect of a definite program. Then, too, materials for new types of activity are becoming more abundant, and the knowledge of how to conduct experiments of the simpler order can be made available to a staff of ordinary ability provided there is any real enthusiasm for progress. Numerous colleges have made beginnings; a few have had success with more ambitious programs over a longer period; but for most of them, the field of supervised practice in connection with college courses in religious education remains largely an unsolved problem—an uncultivated field.

4. COLLEGE TRAINING AND CHURCH PRACTICE

The previous problem opens into another: how definitely do religious education courses expect their college product to function in the churches? What “skills” are furnished their students for the task of analyzing the situations that exist in the churches with which they must later be aligned? It is a tribute to a teacher to say that he has awakened his students and made them critical. But many ministers have found the product returned from the colleges of little use in making headway against the immense triviality which threatens to engulf him in his church; or else, finds students coming back with no notion of how to help him mediate to the younger groups in the church the meaning of current changes in thought and social practice. The churches have a right to expect something of *all* their college trained youth, and especially of those who have been trained in the analysis and control of religious problems. But too often, perhaps, the most obvious opportunity the churches offer is conformity,—participation on the lowest level of responsibility. Do the churches too easily defeat the aspirations of their youth? To what degree can this loss be overcome by a scientific approach, through asking where the difficulties lie,

and what skills can be employed to meet them?

5. ORIENTATION IN CURRENT ISSUES AND WORLD PROBLEMS

Here, too, the issue is clear, though its ramifications are endless. Such questions as military training bring the whole international situation, not only to many campuses, but to the innermost conscience of many a sensitive student for whom it involves a question almost equal to that of destiny. Others find themselves preparing to take part, on what terms they are still undecided, in the highly competitive struggle of an economic order that har-

bors many injustices among its vast opportunities. The question will not down: What has religion to say about the scale of values one is to work out? Can these college courses be employed to sharpen the insight of students to the end that they will understand the dynamic processes by which character is being shaped? Here, finally, the instructor in religious education is faced with the choice of (a) merely training his students to succeed on the present level of insight, with religious standards and values accepted as finished and matured; or (b) making his classes forums for the discussion and definition of the vital perplexities of our time.

APPENDIX A

CATALOG OF TEACHERS OF RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

The following list of names and institutions is compiled from the replies to a questionnaire sent in December, 1926. Information concerning teachers was received from 159 of the 172 institutions included in this survey. Only those persons are included who were in charge of courses for undergraduates dealing with

"the theory and practice of teaching religion." With allowance for unavoidable inaccuracies due to changes of position and misunderstanding of the questionnaire, it is believed that this list is a reliable source of information for the academic year 1926-1927 in these 159 institutions. The names are arranged alphabetically according to states.

Alexander, C. C.	Birmingham-Southern College	Birmingham, Ala.
Brooks, R. E.	Payne University	Selma, Ala.
Carmichael, P. H.	Alabama College	Montevallo, Ala.
Chapman, James H.	Howard College	Birmingham, Ala.
Davidson, A. B.	Woman's College of Alabama	Montgomery, Ala.
Echols, W. G.	Birmingham-Southern College	Birmingham, Ala.
Hall, L. M. (Miss)	Woman's College of Alabama	Montgomery, Ala.
Langstrom, O. D.	Alabama Polytechnic Institute	Auburn, Ala.
Pitts, U. S.	University of Alabama	University, Ala.
Smith, A. M.	Judson College	Marion, Ala.
Hall, R. C.	Hendrix College	Conway, Ark.
Colliver, G. H.	College of the Pacific	Stockton, Cal.
Homan, Walter J.	Whittier College	Whittier, Cal.
Hutton, Jean G. (Miss)	Univ. of Southern California	Los Angeles, Cal.
Montgomery, J. H.	Univ. of Southern California	Los Angeles, Cal.
Price, Rebecca B. (Miss)	Univ. of Southern California	Los Angeles, Cal.
Taylor, R. J.	Pomona College	Claremont, Cal.
Wood, W. C.	College of the Pacific	Stockton, Cal.
Lynn, Robert H.	Colorado Woman's College	Denver, Colo.
Baxter, Edna M.	Hartford School of R. E.	Hartford, Conn.
Myers, A. J. W.	Hartford School of R. E.	Hartford, Conn.
Bentley, John E.	American University	Washington, D. C.
Haggerty, W. E.	American University	Washington, D. C.
Nelson, W. S.	Howard University	Washington, D. C.
Benton, John K.	Southern College	Lakeland, Fla.
Jones, Wilbur M.	Piedmont College	Demorest, Ga.
Rogers, Lois (Miss)	Wesleyan College	Macon, Ga.
Sharp, Colleen (Miss)	Reinhardt College	Waleska, Ga.
Smith, Maidee (Miss)	LaGrange College	Lagrange, Ga.
Betts, Geo. H.	Northwestern University	Evanston, Ill.
Bostrom, Otto H.	Augustana College	Rock Island, Ill.
Carman, N. H.	Lombard College	Galesburg, Ill.
Coffman, A. R.	Mount Morris College	Mt. Morris, Ill.
Domm, E. E.	North-Central College	Naperville, Ill.
Hawthorne, Marion O. (Miss)	Northwestern University	Evanston, Ill.
Hefelbower, S. G.	Carthage College	Carthage, Ill.
Higdon, E. E.	Eureka College	Eureka, Ill.
Katterjohn, Henry	Elmhurst College	Elmhurst, Ill.
Kinrade, C. J.	Illinois Wesleyan University	Bloomington, Ill.
Kohn, W. C.	Concordia Teachers' College	River Forest, Ill.
Lankard, Frank G.	Northwestern University	Evanston, Ill.
Murray, D. H.	Monmouth College	Monmouth, Ill.
Richardson, Norman E.	Northwestern University	Evanston, Ill.
Rule, Andrew K.	Illinois College	Jacksonville, Ill.
Searles, H. L.	James Millikin University	Decatur, Ill.
Stearns, W. N.	Illinois Woman's College	Jacksonville, Ill.
Stout, John E.	Northwestern University	Evanston, Ill.

Waggener, H. Farr.....	Shurtleff College	Alton, Ill.
Armstrong, H. Parr.....	Butler University	Indianapolis, Ind.
Case, R. T.....	Wabash College	Crawfordsville, Ind.
Pickett, C. E.....	Earlham College	Richmond, Ind.
Shultz, L. W.....	Manchester College	North Manchester, Ind.
Conover, Cassa.....	Penn College	Oskaloosa, Iowa
Huff, A. LeRoy.....	Drake University	Des Moines, Iowa
Jacobson, P. W.....	Coe College	Cedar Rapids, Iowa
Kremers, Harry.....	Coe College	Cedar Rapids, Iowa
Lotz, P. Henry.....	Upper Iowa University.....	Fayette, Iowa
Morris, Lloyd W.....	Coe College	Cedar Rapids, Iowa
Orvis, Susan (Miss).....	Tabor College	Tabor, Iowa
Smith, Madorah E.....	Simpson College	Indianola, Iowa
Stevick, Paul R.....	Morningside College	Sioux City, Iowa
Stranahan, E. H.....	Penn College	Oskaloosa, Iowa
Stranahan, Irene S. (Miss).....	Penn College	Oskaloosa, Iowa
Behan, Warren P.....	Ottawa University	Ottawa, Kan.
Ebright, L. K.....	Baker University	Baldwin, Kan.
Eichelberger, L. E.....	University of Wichita.....	Wichita, Kan.
Hekhuis, L.....	University of Wichita.....	Wichita, Kan.
Hoff, John L.....	McPherson College	McPherson, Kan.
Holtz, A. A.....	Kansas State Agri. College.....	Manhattan, Kan.
Jones, O. Leonard.....	Southwestern College	Winfield, Kan.
Kurtz, D. W.....	McPherson College	McPherson, Kan.
McCreight, J. L.....	Sterling College	Sterling, Kan.
Mills, John P.....	Friends University	Wichita, Kan.
Cheek, F. Powell.....	Centre College	Danville, Ky.
Moore, Geo. V.....	Transylvania College	Lexington, Ky.
Carter, Samuel R.....	Centenary College	Shreveport, La.
Newman, H. L.....	Colby College	Waterville, Maine
Armstrong, Laura M. (Miss).....	Boston University	Boston, Mass.
Athearn, Walter S.....	Boston University	Boston, Mass.
Bailey, Albert E.....	Boston University	Boston, Mass.
Bates, Esther W. (Miss).....	Boston University	Boston, Mass.
Coburn, Charles A.....	Boston University	Boston, Mass.
Foster, Eugene C.....	Y. M. C. A. College.....	Springfield, Mass.
Hanson, Whittier L.....	Boston University	Boston, Mass.
Marlatt, Earl B.....	Boston University	Boston, Mass.
Mayer, Herbert C.....	Boston University	Boston, Mass.
Munkres, Alberta (Miss).....	Boston University	Boston, Mass.
Niebuhr, Hulda (Miss).....	Boston University	Boston, Mass.
Seaman, Marion (Miss).....	Boston University	Boston, Mass.
Skinner, C. R.....	Tufts College	Tufts, Mass.
Smith, H. Augustine.....	Boston University	Boston, Mass.
Thomas, Edith L. (Miss).....	Boston University	Boston, Mass.
Warmingham, O. W.....	Boston University	Boston, Mass.
Wilson, Mira B. (Miss).....	Smith College	Northampton, Mass.
Brokenshire, C. D.....	Alma College	Alma, Mich.
Goodrich, F. S.....	Albion College	Albion, Mich.
Sonquist, David E.....	Hillsdale College	Hillsdale, Mich.
Fletcher, Raymond.....	Macalester College	St. Paul, Minn.
Hegland, Martin	St. Olaf College	Northfield, Minn.
Kagin, Edwin	Macalester College	St. Paul, Minn.
Williams, T. A.....	Hamline University	St. Paul, Minn.
Bassett, B. B.....	State Teachers College.....	Hattiesburg, Miss.
Owens, Kate P. (Miss).....	Whitworth College	Brookhaven, Miss.
Patterson, M. O.....	Mississippi College	Clinton, Miss.
Swisher, Helen E. (Miss).....	Grenada College	Grenada, Miss.
Alexander, W. M.....	Central College	Fayette, Mo.
Bishop, James H.....	Park College	Parkville, Mo.
Hester, H. I.....	William Jewell College.....	Liberty, Mo.
Swift, C. B.....	Drury College	Springfield, Mo.
Thorp, R. L.....	Culver-Stockton College	Canton, Mo.
Towner, Milton C.....	University of Missouri.....	Columbia, Mo.
Whitson, John H.....	Hardin Junior College.....	Mexico, Mo.
Crane, Gertrude B. (Miss).....	Intermountain Union College.....	Helena, Mont.
Emme, Earle E.....	Nebraska Wesleyan Univ.....	University Place, Neb.
Leftwick, L. L.....	Cotner College	Bethany, Neb.

Lytle, W. V.....	Doane College	Crete, Neb.
White, John C.....	Midland College	Fremont, Neb.
Degen, Dora K. (Miss).....	Alfred University	Alfred, N. Y.
Erb, Frank O.....	Auburn School of R. E.....	Auburn, N. Y.
Loomis, R. L.....	Keuka College	Keuka Park, N. Y.
St. John, Edward P.....	Auburn School of R. E.....	Auburn, N. Y.
Stooker, Wilhelmina (Miss).....	Auburn School of R. E.....	Auburn, N. Y.
York, H. C.....	Elmira College	Elmira, N. Y.
Alexander, W. S.....	Elon College	Elon College, N. C.
Bennett, S. A.....	Elon College	Elon College, N. C.
Case, Perry	Atlantic Christian College.....	Wilson, N. C.
Cullom, W. R.....	Wake Forest College.....	Wake Forest, N. C.
Freeman, L. E. M.....	Meredith College	Raleigh, N. C.
Harper, W. A.....	Elon College	Elon College, N. C.
Robertson, Lucy H. (Mrs.).....	Greensboro College	Greensboro, N. C.
Sommerville, C. W.....	Queens College	Charlotte, N. C.
Spence, H. E.....	Duke University	Durham, N. C.
Stearns, Helen R.....	Elon College	Elon College, N. C.
Corn, Isaac S.....	Wesley College	Grand Forks, N. D.
Roe, Wm. E.....	Jamestown College	Jamestown, N. D.
Crawford, Jessie D. (Miss).....	Denison University	Granville, Ohio
Engle, J. S.....	Otterbein College	Westerville, Ohio
Farr, Wendell	Wilmington College	Wilmington, Ohio
Franklin, Samuel P.....	Baldwin-Wallace College	Berea, Ohio
Heisey, Paul H.....	Wittenberg College	Springfield, Ohio
Humphrey, S. B.....	Defiance College	Defiance, Ohio
Hursh, E. M.....	Otterbein College	Westerville, Ohio
Keith, Lucy E. (Miss).....	Western College for Women.....	Oxford, Ohio
Kelsey, Hugh A.....	Muskingum College	New Concord, Ohio
Portz, H. O.....	Wittenberg College	Springfield, Ohio
Sheridan, Harold J.....	Ohio Wesleyan University.....	Delaware, Ohio
Stewart, Frederic W.....	Denison University	Granville, Ohio
Van Buren, V.....	Ohio Northern University.....	Ada, Ohio
Vogel, Carl	Capital University	Columbus, Ohio
De Bardeleben, Mary (Miss).....	University of Oklahoma.....	Norman, Okla.
Morgan, M. J.....	Oklahoma City University.....	Oklahoma City, Okla.
Powell, Wilfred E.....	Phillips University	Enid, Okla.
Redford, S. C.....	Oklahoma Baptist University.....	Shawnee, Okla.
Yarborough, W. F.....	Oklahoma Baptist University.....	Shawnee, Okla.
Andrews, C. T.....	Willamette University.....	Salem, Ore.
Findley, Mary E (Miss).....	Willamette University.....	Salem, Ore.
Guiley, Ross	Eugene Bible University.....	Eugene, Ore.
Hertzog, W. H.....	Willamette University.....	Salem, Ore.
Myers, Walter L.....	Eugene Bible University.....	Eugene, Ore.
Sly, Wm. J.....	Linfield College	McMinnville, Ore.
Bond, Charles M.....	Bucknell University	Lewisburg, Pa.
Freemantle, Wm. A.....	Temple University	Philadelphia, Pa.
Kuehner, Q. A.....	Temple University	Philadelphia, Pa.
Limbirt, Paul M.....	Franklin and Marshall College.....	Lancaster, Pa.
Nevius, Warren N.....	Wilson College	Chambersburg, Pa.
Reagle, W. G.....	Grove City College.....	Grove City, Pa.
Rohrbaugh, L. C.....	Dickinson College	Carlisle, Pa.
Rominger, Chas. H.....	Cedar Crest College.....	Allentown, Pa.
Schmadel, Helen C. (Miss).....	Seton Hill College.....	Greensburg, Pa.
Scott, Stanley	Penna. College for Women.....	Pittsburgh, Pa.
Bourne, Helen B. (Mrs).....	Lander College	Greenwood, S. C.
Carpenter, L. L.....	Furman University	Greenville, S. C.
Crum, Mason	Columbia College	Columbia, S. C.
Massey, H. N.....	Limestone College	Gaffney, S. C.
McDonald, Marie (Miss).....	Columbia College	Columbia, S. C.
Morgan, C. S.....	Summerland College	Batesburg, S. C.
Trawick, A. M.....	Wofford College	Spartanburg, S. C.
Boyer, E. S.....	Dakota Wesleyan College.....	Mitchell, S. D.
Oxtoby, Frederic B.....	Huron College	Huron, S. D.
Van Deman, R. L.....	Yankton College	Yankton, S. D.
Baker, Paul E.....	Fisk University	Nashville, Tenn.
Crawford, L. W.....	Geo. Peabody T. College.....	Nashville, Tenn.
Duvall, S. M.....	Scarritt College	Nashville, Tenn.

Gay, Henrietta L. (Miss).....	Scarritt College	Nashville, Tenn.
Guerry, N. D.....	Hiwassee College	Madisonville, Tenn.
Moore, C. O.....	Lambuth College	Jackson, Tenn.
Morgan, (Mrs.) Geo. A.....	Martin College	Pulaski, Tenn.
Orr, H. K.....	Maryville College	Maryville, Tenn.
Prince, John W.....	Univ. of Chattanooga.....	Chattanooga, Tenn.
Walker, J. R.....	Lambuth College	Jackson, Tenn.
Atwood, A. B.....	Simmons University	Abilene, Texas
Billington, F. B.....	Texas Christian University.....	Fort Worth, Texas
Holderness, Lucy (Miss).....	Wesley College	Greenville, Texas
Mann, Sue B. (Miss).....	Texas Woman's College.....	Fort Worth, Texas
Pickerill, H. L.....	Texas Woman's College.....	Fort Worth, Texas
Garland, Mary C. (Miss).....	Averett College	Danville, Va.
Miller, Minor C.....	Bridgewater College	Bridgewater, Va.
Naylor, E. R.....	Emory and Henry College.....	Emory, Va.
Scott, William	Randolph-Macon Woman's Coll.	Lynchburg, Va.
Taylor, Geo. B.....	Hollins College	Hollins, Va.
Wilson, E. C.....	Lynchburg College	Lynchburg, Va.
Miller, H. Newton.....	Bethany College	Bethany, W. Va.
Peerman, E. L.....	Morris and Harvey College.....	Barboursville, W. Va.
Davies, Zac	Carroll College	Waukesha, Wis.
Denyes, J. R.....	Lawrence College	Appleton, Wis.
Shaw, Edwin	Milton College	Milton, Wis.
Speicher, E. E.....	Northland College	Ashland, Wis.

APPENDIX B

THE STORY OF THIS SURVEY

In September, 1926, Teachers College, Columbia University offered an "Advanced Course in Teaching Religious Education" under the leadership of Professor George A. Coe. The eighteen graduate students who registered for the course had all had professional experience in religious education, many of them in the college field.

From the beginning Dr. Coe was eager to have the work of the class take such shape that it could be published. Various possibilities were suggested but it was finally determined to undertake a survey of the present teaching of religious education to undergraduates. The class divided into committees to cover the aspects of its task: (1) the history of the teaching of religious education; (2) the present situation in the colleges; (3) a survey of religious education as an academic subject; (4) the textbooks used and their adequacy. In addition reports on related subjects were made by individuals within the group. Chief among these was a report by Harold G. Salton on the teaching of religious education in the Canadian colleges. It was not possible to include this report in the final material because Mr. Salton was unable to continue his work through the second semester and there was no one else equipped to carry it on.

As a preliminary step Dr. Coe had written in July to some forty professors of religious education in undergraduate colleges. The letter read as follows:

"Undergraduate instruction in religious education is given in more than 200 institutions in this country. The courses number over 600. This figure does not include related subjects, such as Bible, Missions, etc.

"For the sake of my students, and ultimately for the purpose of publication,

I am endeavoring to ascertain what functions all this teaching of religious education performs or aims to perform. *Graduate* departments, and some departments and schools that mix graduate and undergraduate work, undertake to provide professional training for religious education as an occupation. This is a clear-cut objective. Are the objectives of the 600 *undergraduate* courses equally definite, and if so, what are these objectives? I should like to be able to say to my students, 'If you become a teacher of religious education in an undergraduate institution, such and such results will be expected from your teaching.'

"Experience must be demonstrating some things as to general policies that lead, or do not lead, effectively and economically toward these results. Doubtless early difficulties, inevitable in a field practically without precedents, are yielding; possibly unforeseen problems are arising. It would serve the cause if one could tell prospective teachers what errors to avoid, and what policies and procedures give greatest promise of fruit. Where are the points for emphasis, both positive and negative?

"If you have the interest and can find the time to share your experience with me to any extent, however slight, I shall be deeply grateful. If you desire to restrict the use to be made of anything that you say, be good enough to let me know.

"Faithfully yours."

The response to this letter was generous and significant, giving not only up-to-date accounts of undergraduate instruction but frank and penetrating comments upon present aims and future developments in that field. This material was put at the disposal of the class and proved of great assistance to several of the committees.

The committee on the history of the teaching of religious education in the colleges consisted of John Hanna, chairman, Walker M. Alderton, Paul M. Limbert and Willis Mathias (Mr. Mathias was obliged to drop the course after a few weeks, but not before he had done considerable work for this committee). The members of the committee divided their material into chronological periods, tracing the development of religious education as a subject for college study from 1903-1910, 1911-1915, 1916-1921, 1922-1926. The Proceedings of the Religious Education Association and the files of "Religious Education" were their chief sources. By Christmas an outline of this development had been presented to the class, illuminated and vitalized by Dr. Coe's comments and reminiscences. The material was then laid aside until its relation to, and position in, the final report should be made clear.

The importance of the general college setting in the policies and results of the religious education department was evident early in the study, hence the committee on the present situation in the colleges. Owing to limitations of time and resources and the necessary subordination of such a report to the total enterprise, it was clearly impossible to make extended personal surveys or give an exhaustive treatment of the subject. After considerable general reading in regard to college problems, educational and social, the members of the committee divided the field as follows: college aims; college administration; the faculty; the curriculum; the student body,—its selection, intellectual attitudes, a few of its recognized problems and its religious life. In all the reports attention was concentrated upon those points where conflict, uncertainty or sense of strain was evident. The reports of each member were submitted to the committee as a whole, discussed, revised and then presented to the class. By the end of the first semester these reports

had been accepted by the class and turned over to the chairman to be written up for final incorporation in the class report. The committee consisted of: Madeline Erskine, Lois Kugler, Winfrey Blair, Charles Darsie, Harry Luerich, George L. Maxwell, John Vollenweider, Katharine L. Richards, chairman.

The survey committee was composed of Paul M. Limbert, chairman, Walker M. Alderton, John B Hanna and Mrs. Mary W. Clapp. The available material, previous surveys, etc., proved inadequate for the committee's purpose so that they were forced to seek information directly from the colleges involved. A questionnaire was prepared on Classroom Instruction in Religious Education, with a Supplementary Schedule on Instructors and Text-Books and a page of directions for their use. (Exhibits A, B, C.) Before the blanks were sent out, the members of the committee went through the college catalogs in the libraries of Teachers College, Columbia University, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, and the Council of the Church Boards of Education to see what institutions offered courses in religious education and to fill out the questionnaire as completely as possible for each institution. A copy of the filled out sheet together with the supplementary schedule, the directions and a letter (Exhibit D) were sent to the 270 institutions reporting undergraduate courses in religious education. Sixty per cent of the replies were received in answer to the first appeal. (It took the rest of the school year to secure the remaining 40 per cent.) The data from the early replies were tabulated and the colleges arranged according to geographical distribution. A report on this was made to the class and also on the significant distributions that might be worked out from these facts.

The text-book committee, Ruth Butler, Robert Blackshear and Ruth Murphy, chairman, also turned to the catalogs in

order to discover the text-books in use. The meager list resulting was amplified by asking the students in the religious education classes at Teachers College and Union Theological Seminary to turn in lists of the text-books used by them in their undergraduate study of religious education. The committee then joined the survey committee in preparing the supplementary schedule (Exhibit B) with its request for the names of text-books used. In the meantime the names of texts already known were divided among the committee members for review. These preliminary reviews were brought to the class and at once a serious difficulty was brought to light. What was to be the basis for the evaluation of these books—the opinions of the individual committee members, the combined judgment of the committee members or of committee members and other members of the class, or some more objective standard? If the latter, where was such an objective standard to be found? Dr. Coe was strong in his insistence on an objective evaluation but felt that it could be provided by the members of the committee. Several of the committee members, on the other hand, were certain that a large measure of subjectivity must enter into any review of a book by an individual.

The end of the semester found the class with considerable material gathered by all the committees and the prospect of more to come. If, however, the original idea of a publishable report was to be carried out there was at least another semester's work to be done. The class was scheduled for one semester and Dr. Coe's resignation took effect the first of February. Six members of the group were willing to continue for the second semester and do their best to carry the enterprise through to completion. It was therefore arranged that the class should continue through the second semester under the leadership of Dr. Adelaide Case

and be open only to students who had been in it during the first semester.

The second semester group were: Walker M. Alderton, Mrs. Mary W. Clapp, John B. Hanna, Paul M. Limbert, Ruth E. Murphy, and Katharine L. Richards. Their first step was to block out the arrangement of material in the final monograph. It was decided to begin with the presentation of the general situation in the colleges, which by that time had changed its title to "Some Significant Issues in College Policy and Administration." The survey material would make the bulk of the monograph and would be followed by a chapter on text-books. The relation of all this to what had gone before would be given in a chapter on the history of the teaching of religious education. Final comments and conclusions would be included in "Current Trends and Problems." The final arrangement was the result of conference with Dr. Coe when the material was ready for the printer.

Several letters were sent during the semester in an effort to secure information from colleges which had not answered the original request or whose questionnaire blanks had been incomplete. Tabulations and distributions had to be postponed until after the first of June in order to include all possible data. In this survey material Mrs. Clapp worked on the length of time courses in religious education had been established and the teachers of such courses,—their names, degrees, rank in the faculty, other courses taught and where they received their professional training. Mr. Hanna collected the aims of instruction in religious education and, with Mr. Limbert, compiled the response of students to courses in religious education. Mr. Limbert and Mr. Alderton gathered together the facts concerning the institutions where courses in religious education are given, the place of religious education courses in the curriculum as a whole, the courses in re-

ligious education that are being offered and the methods used in these courses. The final combination and arrangement of this material was made by Mr. Limbert.

The study of the text-books occupied much time during the second semester. From the names of the books reported in the schedules a list was compiled giving for each book the title, author, college using it and the number of times it was used as a text or as a reference. The fourteen books most frequently used as texts, plus Dr. Watson's "Case Studies for Teachers of Religion" were selected for special study.

The whole group spent a number of class sessions in drawing up tentative criteria for college text-books which, with a letter and the directions for use (Exhibits E, F, G), were sent to about 100 persons prominent in the field of religious education. Several of the replies suggested changes in the wording or arrangement of the items or valuable criticisms of the scheme as a whole. Lack of time prevented a return of the revised criteria to this group for further comment, but the class made a few changes in the wording and in the order of the items so as to bring the standards in line with the criticisms received and with its own second judgment. These standards for college text-books (Exhibit H) were then sent, one for each of the 15 texts chosen, to 25 judges with the request that they evaluate as many of the 15 as possible.

In the meantime the weightings of the items in the Tentative Criteria (Exhibit E) were worked out as follows. The weight assigned in Column II for each item was multiplied by the weight assigned the division in Column I. A frequency distribution was formed for each item and the median computed on the basis of the total number of replies. The items were then arranged in order of importance, thus indicating the relative

importance by *rank* given by the judges. The ratings given each book by each of the judges were ranked according to this scheme, the medians found and the books evaluated accordingly. In addition to this numerical work Miss Murphy has included in her study, Chapter V, a brief review of each book based on the judgments thus secured.

The second semester's work, continued on into June, also saw the writing of the chapter on the general college situation by the chairman of that committee, Miss Richards. The vigorous condensation necessary to bring the original reports into the compass of a chapter made it seem wiser to append a brief bibliography giving the main sources of information rather than to try to annotate for the references behind each statement.

In somewhat the same fashion Mr. Alderton has prepared the chapter on the history of the college teaching of religious education. He and Mr. Hanna have also gathered up the questions and conclusions of the year's study in the final chapter on "Current Trends and Problems."

The group of six who must assume responsibility for this Survey of Undergraduate Instruction in Religious Education would like to express their appreciation to their fellow students for the work which they inherited. Thanks are due to the Department of Religious Education at Teachers College for its assumption of all financial obligations for postage, mimeographing, etc., and for the desk room allowed the group in the Department's already congested quarters. For the diagrams which appear in the survey we are indebted to Mr. George L. Maxwell who added this significant piece of cooperation to his earlier labors. It is impossible to mention by name the many persons who have contributed to this undertaking—all those in the colleges who not only answered questionnaires

(2) Please supply all possible information in the spaces on the schedule which have not been filled.

A very early reply will be appreciated, since the students hope to be able to compare and compile the returned data soon after December 22nd.

Explanatory Notes:

NUMBER OF STUDENTS includes all undergraduate and graduate students in all departments and schools of the institution during the year 1925-1926, excluding those enrolled in Summer Session or Extension work and excluding duplications.

MAJORS: if the system of major and minors is not used in your institution, mark "No majors" in the appropriate space.

INSTRUCTORS: the question concerning full-time instructors should be answered in the light of the definition of "Religious Education" given above.

SEMESTER HOURS: if the academic year in your institution is divided into three terms instead of two, write "quarter hours" on the

last line after the total number of hours offered.

ENROLLMENT IN COURSES: if any course has not yet been taught, although announced in the catalog, mark O in Column 2.

EXHIBIT D

December 8, 1926.

My dear Mr. _____:

No detailed study of the teaching of religious education in colleges has been published since the Religious Education Association report of 1915. With a view to bringing this matter up to date will you supply a few items of information about your own institution?

The enclosed survey blank contains all the information on certain points that a group of my graduate students could find in your catalog. Will you please make any necessary corrections and additions? Will you also fill out the other blank, and return the whole at the earliest moment? We hope to assemble all the material by December 22nd.

Thank you. Very truly yours,
GEORGE A. COE.

EXHIBIT E'

TENTATIVE CRITERIA FOR COLLEGE TEXT-BOOKS

I	II
	I. EXTERNAL FORM
	1. Binding (durability, attractiveness)
	2. Paper (quality)
	3. Type (size, clearness)
	4. Arrangement of page (spacing, margins)
	5. Press work (evenness of imprint, typographical accuracy)
	II. LITERARY FORM
	1. Style (choice of words, clearness, coherence, use of illustrations,—in relation to college students)
	2. Titles and Captions (appropriate headings for sections, chapters and paragraphs)
	3. Tables of Contents, Index (brevity, completeness)
	4. Footnotes, Appendices (accuracy, appropriateness)
	III. SELECTION OF MATERIAL
	1. Scope (adequacy in reference to range of topic treated)
	2. Breadth of Background (recognition of relation of material to important social and philosophical problems)
	3. Balance (space and emphasis in proportion to significance of material)
	4. Accuracy in statements of fact (indication of sources)
	5. Judgments and Conclusions (indication of grounds for reasoning)
	6. Adequacy for present use (in light of current developments in education, psychology, religious thought, natural sciences, etc.)
	7. Inclusiveness (recognition of conflicting points of view)
	8. Consistency (in relation to expressed or implied point of view)
	IV. ORGANIZATION OF MATERIAL (for Classroom and Reference Use)
	1. Division of material (logical and comparable units)
	2. Questions (clearness, stimulation to thought)
	3. Suggestions for further study (library readings and research)
	4. Suggestions for gathering additional data from the field observation, surveys, experimentation, etc.
	5. Bibliography (inclusion of varying viewpoints, annotation or classification)

EXHIBIT F

DIRECTIONS FOR COOPERATION IN
ESTABLISHING TEXTBOOK
CRITERIA

1. *Weighting of Major Divisions.* There are four large divisions into which the criteria have been grouped, marked with Roman Numerals.

- a) Decide which of these four groups is most important, in your judgment, in evaluating textbooks on religious education for college students. (The term "religious education" in this survey applies primarily to the theory and practice of teaching religion, not to courses in the Bible.)
- b) Assign a weight of 5 to that division which you consider of greatest importance. Place the figure 5 in Column I opposite the corresponding major division.
- c) Assign weightings to the other three divisions, using a weight of 5 if of equal importance, of 4 if approximately 80% as important, or of 3, 2, or 1 in a correspondingly decreasing ratio. Place the figures in the appropriate spaces in Column I.
- d) It does not matter what the total of the four weightings happens to be.

2. *Weighting of Individual Criteria.* Within each major division there are from four to eight items. Proceed within each of these groupings in the same way in which you assigned weights to the four divisions.

- a) Assign a weight of 5 to that item which you consider most important within its group. Place the figure 5 in Column II opposite that criterion.
- b) Assign weightings to the other standards within the group, using a weight of 5 if of equal importance, of 4 if approximately 80% as important, or of 3, 2, or 1 in decreasing ratio. Place the figures in the corresponding spaces in Column II.
- c) It does not matter what the total of the weightings within a division may be, nor how much the totals of the four groups vary.
- d) When the weighting is complete, there should be a number in Column II opposite each criterion.

3. *Criticism of Criteria.* After the weighting has been made, add in any convenient place on the same sheet or on a separate page changes which you consider desirable in the wording or arrangement of the statements. Make note of any of the proposed criteria which you think should not be included. Add any other criteria which you consider significant.

EXHIBIT G

March 19, 1927.

You may already know that a survey of "Undergraduate Instruction in Religious Education" is being made by a group of Teachers College students under the guidance of Dr. George A. Coe. One of the most difficult parts of the study is a fair evaluation of the books which are used most frequently as texts in Religious Education in the colleges. In an effort to avoid the dominance of any single viewpoint, we are seeking to establish standards for judging these textbooks by submitting the enclosed "Tentative Criteria" to a large group of professional leaders in religious education.

These tentative criteria have been formulated by a small group after considerable discussion and consultation. The statements in parentheses indicate briefly the meaning of each standard. We are requesting you to cooperate in the enterprise in two ways: (1) by giving a weighting to the major divisions and the specific items as they are now formulated, following the directions that are enclosed; (2) by criticizing the criteria themselves, noting on the other side of the sheet or on a separate page any changes that you consider desirable.

When the standards have been weighted and revised, they will be used by a smaller group of judges for rating a number of textbooks which are in current use. The results of the study will be made available in printed form when completed, along with other parts of the survey.

An early reply will be appreciated, in order that the tabulations and computations may be made. We hope that you can return the criteria by April 1st at the latest.

With sincere thanks for your cooperation, we remain,

Very truly yours,

RUTH E. MURPHY.

P. S. Several books have been published so recently that they do not appear in reports from institutions for the year 1925-1926. If there are any new books in the field of Religious Education that you would like to see rated as texts, please write the name of the book and its author at the bottom of the sheet of criteria.

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BUSINESS GIRLS

A Study of Their Interests and Problems

By

Ruth Shonle Cavan, Ph.D.

THE RELIGIOUS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

MONOGRAPH NO. 3

JUNE, 1929

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Preface

I N 1926 when The Religious Education Association reorganized its work under the new leadership of J. M. Artman, one of the tentative plans was that the Association should, from time to time, initiate and carry out research projects. The National Board of the Young Women's Christian Association, knowing of this plan, requested through Mrs. Ethel Dean Rockwell that the Association carry out a study of the religious interests and problems of young business girls. After a number of conferences with Miss Ethel Cutler of the National Board and several of her associates the problem was defined and general plans developed. Plans for the study were approved by the newly appointed Research Committee of the Religious Education Association and the study was started in the summer of 1927.

While the study was at all times very loosely organized, it has received support, either through work done, or financially, from a number of sources. The Religious Education Association was responsible for financial support. A special contribution from Mrs. Dana W. Hall of Chicago provided a part of the funds. Fees received by the writer from teaching classes at the Y. W. C. A. were also used to defray expenses. The Y. W. C. A. made its contribution to the study through work of numerous secretaries. Miss Cutler gave generously of her time during the early planning stages. Miss Alice Reynolds and Miss Marguerite Sylla of the National Board, both stationed in Chicago, secured the cooperation of a number of secretaries of cities of the middle west, while Miss Sylla made special arrangements for work to be carried out at the Camp Gray, Michigan, business girls' conference in 1928. Miss M. Maude Fowler circulated questionnaires at the Camp Gray conference in 1927. Much work was done in Chicago. Miss Martha Jaeger was especially helpful; she organized many groups of girls and secured rapport, as well as offered suggestions and carried out some interviewing. Miss Grace E. Richardson assisted by having interest sheets filled out by girls at the Forest Beach Camp. From the local Chicago branches of the Y. W. C. A., Miss Edith Sawyer, Miss Madlyn Newell and Miss Martha Farley of Central Branch and Miss Elizabeth Morrison and Mrs. Gladys Garner Jenkins from the West Side Branch aided by organizing classes and groups of girls. From cities other than Chicago the following secretaries assisted in the study, usually by carrying on a small independent piece of research in their local associations: Miss Mildred King, Detroit, Miss Lilian C. McGrew, Omaha, Miss Bernice Lundien, Davenport, Miss Mabel McConnell, Des Moines, and Miss Theresa Severin, Rockford. Several other secretaries offered assistance but contacts were made with them at too late a date to accept their offers.

Mr. Artman and other members of the R. E. A. staff criticized the questionnaires, assisted in making contacts and cooperated in many ways.

Professor Jordan Cavan of Rockford College supervised all statistical work and read the manuscript for general criticism.

The Chicago Collegiate Bureau of Occupations, and the Central Branch of the Chicago Y. W. C. A. permitted use of their records.

A word should be said also in appreciation of the assistance given by several hundred business girls, their willingness to write tests, to give interviews, and in some cases to write out stories of their experiences.

RUTH SHONLE CAVAN.

June 1, 1929

CHAPTER I

Normal Girls and Their Problems

JOSEPHINE, WHO LIVES IN TWO CITIES¹

Josephine earns her living in a Chicago office; she eats her meals, alone, in Chicago restaurants; she buys her clothing in Chicago stores; she rooms in a Chicago club house. Nevertheless, Josephine really lives in a town some distance from Chicago. She was born in this town, attended school there, belonged to several clubs, had girl and men friends, worked there. Then her employer died and she found she disliked the new manager. She had also reached the limit of vocational opportunity in the town. A friend who lived in Chicago told her of opportunities there; she had never lived away from home; she "wanted her fling." Josephine, who was well trained and experienced, had no difficulty in securing a position as office secretary.

In Josephine's office there are several other girls, some older than Josephine, some of her own age. Some of the older ones, Josephine believes, are jealous of her, because she was given a position to which some of them aspired. They all know each other well and come and go in little cliques in which Josephine is not included. She does not know how to break into these cliques to become a member of one of them.

At first, Josephine roomed alone. Then she moved into a girls' club house. Her roommate, however, is engaged and ab-

sorbed in plans for her own wedding. Josephine sees other girls in the evenings but has not yet found a "chum."

The girls and men Josephine knew at home were the ones she had known in high school; they were friendly and each knew the aspirations and shortcomings of the others. The men Josephine has met at the club dances have asked her to go places with them, but she does not feel that she really knows any of them. They do not talk about themselves, but merely call for her, take her to a dance or theatre and return home with her. Some of the men seem uncultured. Others wish to "pet," and Josephine does not care to "pet" with men she scarcely knows.

Josephine writes home frequently, telling her mother everything. Her mother disapproves of public dances and Josephine therefore has not gone since the time she went with a group of girls from the club and wrote her mother of it. The girls had danced with the young men they met at the dance hall (strangers to them of course) but had come home in a group. Now the girls at the club do not ask her to go with them. Josephine has three small sisters and a young brother. Her father does not earn much money. When Josephine lived at home she gave her mother \$8.00 a week. Although her salary is not materially larger now than when she was home, she still sends her mother \$8.00 a week and occasionally sends a dress for one of the little sisters. As a consequence she is unable to save any money.

Josephine went to church several Sundays but found that no one spoke to her.

1. This is a composite of the attempts of five girls to adjust to living away from home. It is not at all exaggerated. A composite rather than an individual description is given merely to disguise completely the identity of the girl, not for reasons of over-emphasis. The story which follows this one is also a composite.

She felt very blue and thought she could go there twenty years and no one would be aware of it. This was all very different from the friendliness of the family church she had attended at home.

Josephine does not feel settled in Chicago. She would like to return home, but there is little opportunity for a good position there.

Josephine is, in the eyes of her parents, a good daughter; she confides in them, she helps them. Their praise and love are gradually filling the place left vacant by the absence of girl and men friends. But this type of adjustment to living away from home is not a healthy one for Josephine to make. Accustomed to the informal intimacy and all-round acquaintances of smaller towns she finds the more impersonal friendships of the city unsatisfying. She already finds it difficult to make friends and her tendency to find satisfaction in home contacts is shutting her away from friends her own age, from possible marriage, and from normal activities for her spare time.

MAY, WHO HAS AN "OLD-FASHIONED" MOTHER

Once started, May talks with a complete release of emotion about her mother; then she apologizes—her mother is really good to her and would do anything for her; but her mother is old fashioned.

May's mother was born in Germany and although she has lived in this country for many years and can use English, she still speaks German to her children. A thoroughly German grandmother lives in the house next door.

The first difficulty between May and her mother arose when May was in the eighth grade. No other girl in the family had gone beyond the eighth grade—that much education was not necessary for a girl. May's older brother had completed high school—but that was different. May

was an unusually able pupil and her teachers urged her to enter high school. The battle between May and her mother, with other members of the family taking first one side, then the other, raged for six months. May won—but only because at twelve years she could not work and earn money anyway and her mother had never found her very useful around the home. May had two happy years and gained a third year by renewed battle. At sixteen, as soon as the law allowed, she left school and started to work.

The second conflict between May and her mother concerned the disposition of May's salary. At first May willingly gave it all to her mother and received in return money for lunch and carfare, while her mother bought her such clothes as she thought proper. After three years May rebelled. Other girls of her age handled their own money, paying a definite sum to their mothers for board and room. Moreover, they wore clothes which were different from the very sensible ones which May's mother purchased for her. The mother thought of this change in handling money as a definite break in the family. She did not want one of her children to be a boarder in her home. May finally won, agreeing to pay her mother \$9 a week. She continued to help her mother with supper and to do much of her own ironing.

Now that May had bobbed her hair and had begun to dress as the other girls did, her mother found new matters for criticism. May had joined a Y. W. C. A. club and began to go to the movies with her new girl friends. There were too many late hours. Not only did her mother quarrel with her about these things but she talked with older relatives who then "bawled her out."

The climax came when May wished to spend her vacation away from home. Father as well as mother regarded this as not only unheard of but as a positively dangerous thing for her to do. May per-

sisted in her plans and finally, several weeks before time for the vacation, left home. She spent her vacation as she had planned, writing frequently to her mother, and returned home when it was ended. For a time there were no quarrels.

May's mother is thoroughly German in attitude and point of view. A girl should be fitted for wifehood and motherhood, should be sensible, needs only a moderate education, and should be submissive to her family until such time as she becomes married. In this view she is supported by relatives and friends. May, however, is thoroughly American. Her friends are American. She (and they) have bobbed hair, brighten their cheeks with a little rouge, wear thin silk dresses, expose their silk clad knees undaunted to the world, are hard headed and capable about their work and business relations. They are capable of spending their own money and of planning vacations away from home, and they know it. May is rapidly growing away from her family and the constant irritation is causing her to lose her respect and affection for her mother.

NORMAL GIRLS

These stories (and many more which might be presented) concern normal girls, who are intelligent, with more than the average amount of education, self-supporting and attractive. They are in no sense abnormal—they are not "problem" girls. They are the girls who are graduated from high school every year, who fill responsible positions in offices, who "run" clubs, who are loyal to their parents and willing to help younger brothers and sisters attend school; they are the girls who in a few years will marry and rear families.

Why then, do these girls have problems of the type cited? And what will happen if they do not solve these problems? Many of their problems arise because they are in the early twenties. This is one of the transition periods of life, when

one set of habits and one round of friends are left behind and another set of habits and another round of friends are acquired. There are numerous such transitions in life, each one requiring major or minor readjustments in habits, attitudes, emotional responses, and interests. Some of the more important adjustments are the physical adaptations demanded of the child at the time of birth; new habits centering around the period of learning to walk and to eat independently; first adjustment to school life; gaining partial independence at adolescence; transition from school to work; love affairs; marriage; adjustment to single life when marriage does not occur, or to widowhood; adjustments to old age and the cessation from work. In each of these major fields an unlimited variety of minor problems demand readjustment.² The adjustments which involve other people, particularly intimates, are the most difficult to make, because long established emotional bonds are torn loose and must be reestablished. Of this type are the adjustments of the child to parents and all the relations involving a mate—courtship, marriage, sickness, death, divorce. Problems concerning occupations are also important, for they concern not only the very necessary means of livelihood but also status, pride, and the means to procure hobbies, luxuries, and interests. The period in the late teens and early twenties involves many of these major adjustments. The girl is achieving a new relationship with her parents; she is expected by family and friends to marry; she is a competitor in the occupational world; she is for the first time self-supporting. Even the most normal and well balanced girl may during this period face difficult problems which upset her.

Usually after a period of distress when attention is diverted from normal activities and centered on the problems at hand

2. One writer lists twenty-three such adjustments. See Karl deSchweinitz, *The Art of Helping People out of Trouble*, pp. 2-5.

girls achieve some type of adjustment. Nevertheless there is a period when sympathetic and intelligent adults should be able to assist the girl. Otherwise she may become so disturbed that her efficiency is lowered and many aspects of her life affected. She may develop permanent mental sets or attitudes which follow her through life, to her detriment. She may establish unwise social relationships. She may permanently estrange herself from her family. She may, in extreme cases, become psychopathic. Whether or not she makes her adjustments unaided depends in part upon her own resources—self-confidence, judgment, emotional balance, lack of inhibition; in part, upon the difficulty of the problems she encounters.

HOW THIS MONOGRAPH CAME TO BE WRITTEN

This monograph was written because two organizations—the Young Women's Christian Association and The Religious Education Association—felt that young business women constituted a group of normal girls with whom many religious and social agencies work but about whom little is known. An examination of published material revealed practically nothing about the normal young woman, except some scattered articles and books on college students. Younger adolescent girls have been studied. Delinquent, "problem," and psychopathic girls have received major attention, due to a practical need. Information has also been published concerning poorly paid girls and women employed in factories. Married women who work have been studied. Professional and older business women at times make self-studies of their own groups.³ The young business girl is self-

supporting, not in serious difficulty, not abnormal; hence she has escaped the attention of social workers. She is not sufficiently group conscious to study her own problems. Agencies such as churches, the Y. W. C. A., and the numerous local clubs have kept only formal records and have not systematized their knowledge.

This monograph has attempted to obtain facts about young business women in such form that they may be compared and to give some systematic data which will serve as general background material against which definite church, club and class programs may be built, as well as to indicate some of the needs of individual girls which could be met by properly trained older persons. This approach to a religious, educational, or social program is in harmony with the newer trends for rooting such programs in actual needs and building them consciously to strengthen young people to meet present and future problems.

THE PLAN FOR THE STUDY

After surveying some of the facts presented in Chapter II and talking with Y. W. C. A. secretaries regarding homogeneous groups, it was decided to limit the study to unmarried business girls not over thirty years old, and to work as much as possible with the group having American traditions in their home background.

One of the Y. W. C. A.'s chief contributions was to procure contacts with business girls. Hence the data upon which this study is based are limited almost entirely to girls who have some contact with the Y. W. C. A. Special characteristics of this somewhat selective group are pointed out from time to time.

Four points were held in mind in collecting data: (1) to stay close to the central theme of problems and interests of business girls; (2) to secure intensive data from a small group of girls through

3. The Business and Professional Women's Clubs are at present making a study of their own membership. See *The Independent Woman* for 1928. A study by university graduates of one of their own groups may be found in E. J. Hutchinson, "Women and the Ph.D.," *Journal of American Association of University Women*, XXII (Oct., 1928), 19-22.

life histories and interviews; (3) to secure extensive data on a larger number of girls through questionnaires and check lists; (4) to get as much data as possible at first hand from the girls themselves.

In detail, the data gathered include the following:

1. Detailed preliminary questionnaire on interests and problems filled out by 81 girls at the Y. W. C. A. business girls' conference held at Camp Gray, Michigan, in 1927. (See Appendix 1.)

2. Intelligence test, a face sheet for general information, data on budget, leisure time activities and vocational history secured from Y. W. C. A. groups in Chicago and several other cities. (See Appendices 2 and 3.)

3. "Interest blanks" filled out by girls in several cities and also at the 1928 Camp Gray business girls' conference. The latter group also took the Otis Self Administering Test for Mental Ability, Higher Form A, and filled out a brief form of the questionnaire mentioned under No. 1. (See Appendices 4 and 5.)

4. Life histories written by a small number of girls. These were handled by correspondence with the girls. The method was not successful for the group

as a whole, but worked very well with a few of the girls.

5. Interviews with business girls who had taken the intelligence test and with a limited number of college students who had been business girls. (See Appendix 6.)

6. Abstracts made of records of Chicago Y. W. C. A., Employment Bureau, Room Registry, and Social Service Bureau and of the Chicago Collegiate Bureau of Occupations.

7. Questionnaire on interests and problems of girls and on activities of Y. W. C. A.'s sent to approximately 450 Y. W. C. A. secretaries. Replies were received from 132 in time for tabulation.

8. Published studies.

The following is a statement of the group of girls studied and the localities from which they came. All were under thirty-one years of age, unmarried, in business positions.

As the study progressed, schedules were changed and emphasis placed on new points. Hence the same set of data was not obtained from all of the above groups. In each case where a table is given indication will be made of the exact groups from which the material was drawn.

Description of Groups

	No. of Girls
Chicago: Y. W. C. A.—Psychology classes at Central and West Side branches, group in Y. W. C. A. residence (approximately one-third), volunteers at Central Branch, Business Girls' Club at Central Branch	106
Forest Beach Camp, summer 1928. With a few exceptions all were from Chicago	65
Cities over 500,000 in size, exclusive of Chicago: Camp Gray business girls' conference in 1928 and small girls' club in one city	20
Cities 100,000 to 500,000 in size: Y. W. C. A. Clubs and Camp Gray, 1928.....	41
Cities 50,000 to 100,000 in size: Y. W. C. A. Clubs, one Y. W. C. A. residence and Camp Gray, 1928.....	67
Cities under 50,000 in size: Camp Gray conference, 1928.....	43
Mixed group: Camp Gray, 1927.....	81
Clubs in six cities (interest sheets only).....	168

CHAPTER II

Who Are the Office Workers?

BUSINESS GIRLS AS A CULTURAL GROUP

Is there a "modern business girl?" Or are girls in business so varied that they cannot be thought of as a group, as a type?

This study at the outset assumed that business girls could be thought of as a cultural group, culture being here used in the sociological sense to mean an accepted body of customs, traditions, attitudes and opinions, and adherence to the same institutions. The phrase indicates a common background of experience (selective in nature) and current experiences of a common nature. If such common experiences exist they tend to create common problems, interests, attitudes, ambitions, and prejudices, in short, a type of personality which is the resultant of certain experiences and which may be thought of as a business girl personality.

This assumption does not mean, of course, that girls in business are exactly alike, but it would assume that girls in business are, due to their common experiences, more like each other than they are, let us say, like a group of married women, a group of middle aged mothers, a group of women whose lives have been spent in farm work, or a group of highly trained professional women.

The first step taken in this study was to delimit the group and to discover attributes which seemed to characterize business girls and distinguish them from other groups; in other words, to discover whether a selection on the occupational basis was a valid one for the study of something so inclusive as problems and interests.

Although this study began with the idea of including all types of business girls, it actually narrowed down to the

TABLE I

MEN AND WOMEN, TEN YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, IN SPECIFIED OCCUPATIONS
IN CHICAGO*

	Men	Women	Percentage of Women
Domestic and personal services.....	55,798	60,304	51.9
CLERICAL SERVICE			
Stenographers and typists.....	3,023	42,152	93.2
Bookkeepers, cashiers, accountants.....	20,262	16,843	45.4
Clerks, except in stores.....	70,367	37,968	35.0
Messenger, bundle and office boys and girls.....	7,792	1,059	11.9
Agents, canvassers, collectors.....	10,275	796	7.2
Professional service.....	43,528	27,663	38.8
Trade.....	172,264	34,711	16.8
Manufacturing and mechanical industries.....	411,574	77,427	15.9
Transportation.....	98,510	12,011	10.9
Public Service.....	22,682	428	1.8

*14th Census of the U. S., 1920, Vol. IV, *Population, Occupations*, p. 133ff.

study of one group—girls in offices. Therefore the term business girl is perhaps somewhat erroneously used here, since it refers really to office workers.

OFFICE WORKERS ARE WOMEN

Although men predominate in every class of occupation as given in the census except domestic and personal service, certain types of office work are held almost exclusively by women. Out of 45,175 stenographers and typists in Chicago in 1920, 42,152 or more than 93 per cent were women.¹ Among bookkeepers, cashiers and accountants, men predominate. Women, nevertheless, hold approximately 45 per cent of such positions in Chicago. Exact figures for comparison are given in Table I.

THE "TWENTIES" PREDOMINATE IN OFFICES

As a whole women workers are young. In Chicago in 1920 women workers varied in age from approximately 14 to 64 years—a range of 50 years. Never-

1. Chicago is used because it is typical of urban conditions and because much of the succeeding information is from Chicago girls. Data for other cities may be found in Volume IV of the *14th Census of the United States*.

TABLE II

EMPLOYED GIRLS, 18-24 YEARS OLD, INCLUSIVE, DISTRIBUTED INTO GROUPS OF OCCUPATIONS* (CHICAGO, 1920)

Occupation**	Number of girls 18-24 years old inclusive in each occupation.	Percentage of all employed girls 18-24 years old inclusive, in each occupation
Clerical.....	47,886	46.5
Manufacturing and mechanical industries..	23,155	22.4
Trade.....	10,032	9.7
Domestic and personal service.....	8,962	8.7
Professional service...	6,857	6.6
Transportation.....	6,087	5.9
Total.....	102,979	99.8%

*14th Census of the U. S., 1920, Vol. IV, *Population, Occupation*, pp. 1079-80.

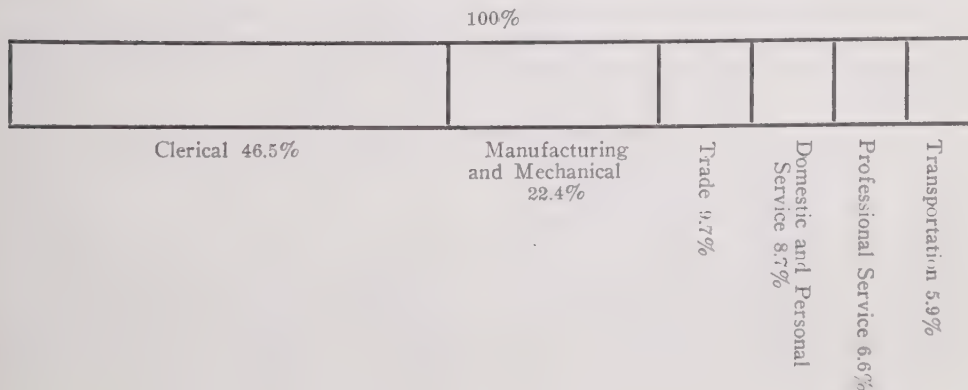
**The Census reports use three other classes of occupations, agriculture, minerals, and public service. The women employed in these fields in Chicago are too few in number to be included.

theless, one-third of the women employed were in the seven years 18-24 inclusive—one-seventh of the age range.

There are six classes of occupations which have large numbers of women workers: clerical, manufacturing and mechanical industries, trade, domestic and

FIGURE I

PERCENTAGE OF ALL EMPLOYED GIRLS, 18-24 YEARS OLD, INCLUSIVE, IN EACH OF VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS (CHICAGO, 1920)



personal service, professional service, and transportation. Three other occupations have so few women workers in Chicago that they are here disregarded. In the six occupations listed above, 102,979 girls are employed who are between the ages 18 and 24 inclusive. Of this group, 46.5

The age divisions used by the census are of such a nature that an exact picture of the age distribution cannot be given. The table which follows gives the exact data as based on the census, while the graph gives a somewhat impressionistic interpretation of the table.

TABLE III
EMPLOYED WOMEN, DISTRIBUTED BY AGE AND OCCUPATION*
(CHICAGO, 1920)

Age groups	Clerical		Transportation		Manufacturing		Trade		Professional service		Domestic and personal service	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
10-17	14,940	15.2	1,640	13.7	12,314	15.9	4,193	12.1	322	1.2	1,506	2.5
18-19	15,964	16.2	2,074	17.3	7,584	9.8	3,162	9.1	812	2.9	1,649	2.7
20-24	31,922	32.3	4,013	33.4	15,571	20.1	6,870	19.8	6045	21.8	7,313	12.1
25-44	32,898	33.3	3,979	33.1	32,284	41.7	15,974	46.0	15,297	55.3	32,127	53.3
45-64	3,006	3.0	293	2.5	9,055	11.7	4,290	12.4	4,844	17.5	15,901	26.4
65-	88	**	12	**	619	.8	222	.6	343	1.3	1,808	3.0
Totals	98,818	100.0	12,011	100.0	77,427	100.0	34,711	100.0	27,663	100.0	60,304	100.0

*14th Census of the U. S., 1920, Vol. IV, *Population, Occupations*, pp. 1079-80.

**Less than one percent.

per cent — almost half — are employed in one group, clerical work. Clerical workers include stenographers, office clerks, bookkeepers, cashiers, messenger girls and agents. Hence if any one occupational group is to be selected for study of the young employed girl, the clerical group is the one which should be chosen.

When the age distribution is considered separately for types of occupations, it becomes clear that each occupation has its peculiar appeal to or demand for some one age group. Clerical work and transportation have the young workers, with many girls not yet twenty; manufacturing and trade have within their ranks a larger proportion of older women, although they also draw heavily on the young; professional service and domestic and personal service both have few young women and a larger proportion of mature women.

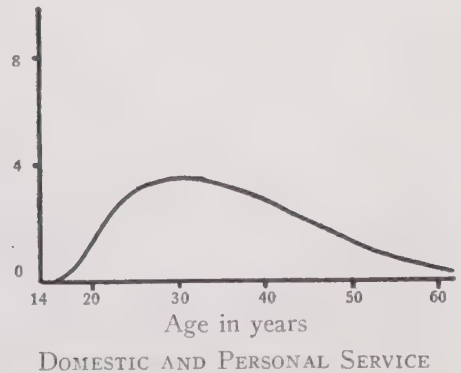
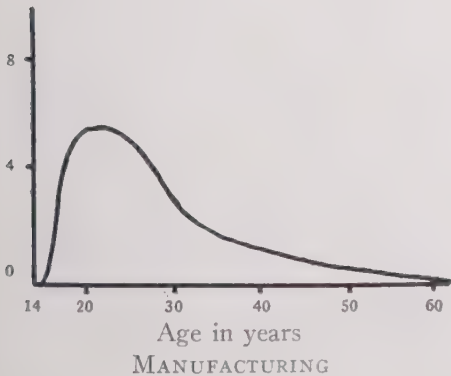
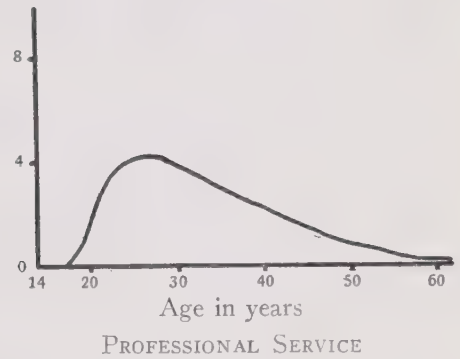
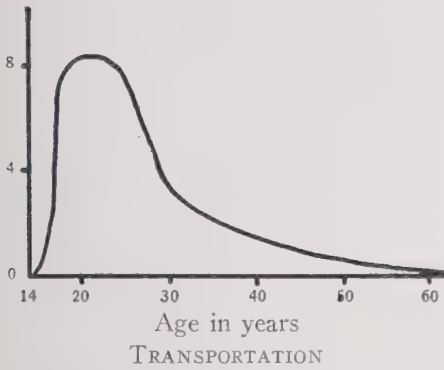
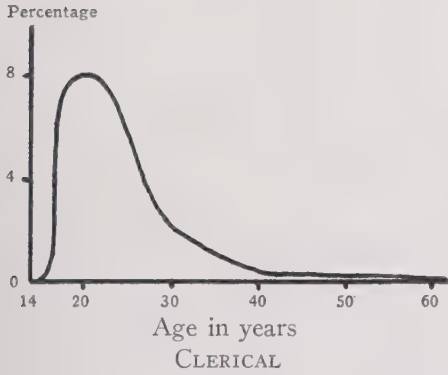
OFFICE WOMEN ARE UNMARRIED

Of the six vocations represented by women in Chicago, none has a higher proportion of unmarried women than the clerical occupations; 91.5 per cent of all women employed in clerical duties are unmarried. This figure, to be sure, includes widowed and divorced as well as those who have never been married, but the number of widowed and divorced is very small, especially for the young age groups which constitute the bulk of the clerical workers. Clerical workers should be thought of then as single women.

THE AMERICAN SOCIAL BACKGROUND

No other of the six occupational classes in Chicago has so low a percentage of foreign born women as has the clerical group. Only 9.5 per cent of the women in clerical work were born outside of the

FIGURE II
PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN EMPLOYED IN
VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS BY AGE PERIODS
(CHICAGO, 1920)



United States; only 1.1 per cent are Negro. This means that almost the entire group is native born. It is very true that not all can be thought of as having wholly American social and cultural backgrounds, for 58.5 per cent have one or both parents foreign born.²

On this point of nativity of parents, conditions differ from community to community and in many smaller cities with few foreign born in the general population, a low percentage of business girls would be found who had foreign born parents. This may be illustrated by a comparison of replies to the question, "What foreign language is spoken in your home?" which was asked of the girls in this study. Of 165 Chicago business girls, 63 stated that some foreign language was used at home. Of 168 girls from cities and towns other than Chicago, only 38 came from homes in which a foreign language was used.

From time to time in the course of this report comparisons will be drawn between business girls and college students. One such comparison may be made here. Of students in 55 colleges and universities, 98.24 per cent were born in the United

States — a figure slightly higher than the proportion of native born business girls. There is a greater difference in the matter of nativity of parents, for only 12.31 per cent of college students had foreign born fathers and only 9.61 per cent had foreign born mothers. The group then which enters business directly from the public schools is somewhat nearer the European background than are the young people who enter college.³

The group with foreign parentage more often than not has traces of old-world culture in home and in church influences. On the other hand the public school has developed American customs and attitudes and the fact that the girl has studied business courses and takes her place in an urban business office indicates in most cases that she is more American than non-American in her habits. The girls who represent this crossing of cultures have problems not felt by other girls. These will be discussed at a later point.

Further light may be thrown on the cultural background by a survey of occupations of the fathers of 244 office girls in Chicago and other cities. These are compared with the distribution into occu-

2. 14th Census of the U. S., 1920, Vol. IV, *Population Occupations*, pp. 1079-80.

3. C. F. Reynolds, *The Social and Economic Status of College Students*, pp. 30-31.

TABLE IV
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF MARRIED AND SINGLE WOMEN 15 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER ENGAGED IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN CHICAGO, 1920*

Occupation	Married		Single, widowed, divorced, unknown		Total number in each occupation
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	
Clerical.....	8,320	8.5	89,862	91.5	98,182
Transportation.....	1,660	13.9	10,330	86.1	11,990
Professional service.....	3,878	14.2	23,775	85.8	27,653
Trade.....	8,353	24.3	26,041	75.7	34,394
Manufacturing and mechanics.....	18,943	24.9	57,187	75.1	76,130
Domestic and personal service.....	17,103	28.4	43,041	71.6	60,144

*14th Census of the U. S., 1920, Vol. IV, *Population, Occupations*, pp. 816-17.

pations of all men forty-five years of age and over for the United States and with the occupations of fathers of high school and college students. (Tables V and VI.) Note from Table VI that high schools, junior colleges and especially universities draw more heavily from the proprietor, professional and managerial classes than does office work in its selection of girls. Business girls, on the other hand, more often come from the group classed here as "manual laborers"—really quite largely the skilled trades—

than do college students. From the more detailed information in Table V it is evident that among the trades it is the more highly skilled ones which produce office workers, and that clerical, commercial and managerial service as well as professional men and proprietors produce proportionately more business girls than do personal service and common labor. Thus while office workers do not so often come from families where the fathers are clerical or professional men as do college students, they quite distinctly come from

TABLE V

PERCENTAGE OF MALES 45 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER ENGAGED IN EACH OCCUPATION COMPARED WITH FATHERS OF COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY STUDENTS AND WITH FATHERS OF 244 GIRL OFFICE WORKERS

Occupations*	Percent of males 45 years of age and over in each occupation in the United States†	Fathers of College and University Students‡		Fathers of girl office workers§	
	A	B Percentage	Ratio B A	C Percentage	Ratio C A
Proprietors.....	8.0	24.2	3.0	11.7	1.5
Professional men.....	3.8	18.3	4.8	7.0	1.8
Managers.....	7.2	10.1	1.4	13.4	1.9
Commercial service.....	3.9	7.0	1.8	7.7	2.0
Clerical service.....	3.0	2.0	.7	5.7	1.9
Agriculture.....	28.5	23.3	.8	11.5	.4
Artisan proprietors.....	**	1.4	...	***	...
Building trades.....	9.5	3.0	.3	12.3	1.3
Machine trades.....	8.9	1.5	.2	8.2	.9
Printing.....	.5	.2	.4	1.2	2.4
Miscellaneous manufacturing and machine trades.....	8.4	.9	.1	11.0	1.3
Transportation.....	5.0	3.8	.8	3.6	.7
Public service.....	1.6	.6	.4	2.0	1.3
Personal service.....	3.7	.4	.1	1.6	.4
Miners, lumbermen.....	.8	.3	.4	.4	.5
Common labor.....	7.2	.5	.1	2.8	.4
Unknown.....		1.7			
Total.....	100.0%	100.0%		100.0%	

*The classification into occupations is based on G. S. Counts, *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education*.

†Compiled from census in O. E. Reynolds, *The Social and Economic Status of College Students*, p. 18.

‡*Ibid.*, p. 18, based on data from 55 colleges and universities.

§From data collected for this study. While the number of girls is small it represents a variety of cities.

**Not obtainable from census.

***Not obtainable from data on business girls.

the middle and upper middle classes, from the point of view of economic and social status.

A COMPOSITE PICTURE OF THE BUSINESS GIRL

From formal data easily available at the beginning of the study and presented in the preceding pages it is apparent that girls working in offices form a distinct group which may be set off from other occupational groups on the basis of age, marital condition, and cultural background. It is common knowledge that interests and problems shift with changes in age and grow out of life experiences. It seems a fair assumption, then, that girls working in offices are a cultural group and that their customs, interests and personalities may be studied.

So far we may think of the typical clerical worker as a girl in her twenties, who has never been married, and whose father is in the skilled trades, or some semi-professional position. She was probably born in America and attended American schools, although in large cities

one out of every two business girls has one or both parents born abroad and in all probability this girl has been reared with ears accustomed to two languages and has been the recipient of two cultural standards — one fostered by home and church, the other by the public school.

THE SELECTION OF GIRLS TO BE STUDIED

In accordance with the foregoing information the girls studied were limited to unmarried business girls, not over thirty years of age, since this seemed the most typical and prevalent type of business women. Aside from these three limitations of marital status, age, and occupation, no effort was made to secure by scientific means a random sample of the group, since to do this would have presented enormous difficulties in making contacts with individual girls. The Y. W. C. A. afforded the means of making ready and spontaneous contacts under conditions which inspired confidence and aroused interest. The girls were members of Y. W. C. A. educational classes or clubs, residents in Y. W. C. A. resi-

TABLE VI
PERCENTAGE OF FATHERS OF STUDENTS AND OF BUSINESS GIRLS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS

Occupations	Public High Schools*	Public Junior Colleges*	State Universities*	Business Girls**
Proprietors.....	19.8	19.1	24.4	11.7
Professional Service.....	9.4	14.0	15.1	7.0
Managers.....	16.5	16.3	10.9	13.4
Commercial Service.....	9.5	9.3	6.9	7.7
Clerical Service.....	5.8	3.8	1.4	5.7
Agriculture.....	2.4	14.2	26.8	11.4
Artisan Proprietors.....	4.2	2.8	1.1	***
Manual Labor.....	29.1	15.6	11.3	43.1
Unknown.....	3.3	4.9	2.1
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

*From O. E. Reynolds, *The Social and Economic Status of College Students*, p. 16.
**From data gathered for this study.
***Not available from this study.

dences, attendants at summer conferences and camps, and in one instance a miscellaneous volunteer group. A selective element is undoubtedly involved in the limitation of the study to members of the Y. W. C. A., since it seems reasonable to suppose that this organization appeals only to girls with certain interests (girls seeking education, athletic recreations, friendships with girls through clubs). Nevertheless, when data regarding such things as nativity and salary are compared with general data for the entire group of business girls, the Y. W. C. A. group seems typical.

Two points should be kept in mind. The girls who attend Y. W. C. A. functions tend to be girls who live at home, a statement true for Chicago as well as for smaller cities. There is no general information available as to the percentage of business girls in Chicago who live away from home and it is altogether probable that the majority of business girls in Chicago are native to the city. There is little lure outside of Chicago for the Chicago girl. The only larger city which she might attack is New York City, which is remote and expensive to reach. Girls who room in Chicago tend to congregate in certain limited sections of the city. Persons who study these sections exclusively receive the impression that these detached young people offer serious

problems. These problems seem to be acute more because of their concentration in these areas than because of the total number when compared with the total number of young people in the city.⁴

The second point is that the girls studied are undoubtedly conservative. The rebels, the radicals, the girls who are defying the conventions are not drawn to the Y. W. C. A. It may be that business girls as a whole are conservative and that again the Y. W. C. A. group is typical—upon this phase of the problem there are no general data. The statement that the Y. W. C. A. girls are conservative is based upon information concerning such minor violations of conventions as smoking among the girls (of some sixty girls only one was a habitual smoker and she had been reared in a foreign community where smoking among women was commonly accepted); attendance at public dance halls, a practice which only a few of the girls followed and which some of them abhorred; degree of submission to family wishes when these were contrary to the girl's own interests; and general attitudes displayed by the girls.

From all the data available it seems fair to assume that the girls studied represent one large group of young business girls—the conservative group—which may well be the most numerous type.

⁴. See H. W. Zorbaugh, *Gold Coast and Slum*, chapter IV.

CHAPTER III

Interests and Problems — A General Survey

CENTERS OF ATTENTION

The girl's interests are the things for which she strives, for which she will make sacrifices. They may concern immediate possessions such as a fur coat, or future ambitions, or concern for her parents, or any one of many other things. Her problems are either unpleasant situations which she cannot avoid, as some conflict at home or work, or they may signify an interest which she is not able to attain. Thus for some girls "education" is both an interest and a problem — she strives for it but not having attained the degree she desires she finds the lack of education a crucial problem. Both interests and problems signify centers of attention, the things the girl thinks about, worries over, and strives to change.

It is the purpose of this chapter to locate these centers of attention in order that in succeeding chapters each may have special consideration. The initial step in charting the girl's mental and emotional topography was a long questionnaire used at the summer conference of business girls held at Camp Gray, Michigan, in 1927, and with smaller groups elsewhere. A copy of this questionnaire will be found in Appendix 1. From the replies a long list of interests and problems was compiled and worked out into three lists, namely, of interests, activities, and problems. These were mimeographed and other groups of girls were asked to check the items which were factors in their lives. This check list will be found in Appendix 4.

Table VII gives the numbers of girls in eight different groups who checked the

various "interest" items and the percentages for the combined group. Fifty per cent or more of the girls checked these items: travel, education, saving money, sports, meeting new people, girl friends, reading, girls' clubs, marriage, business life, dancing, money, church, movies, and theatres.

Table VIII gives the number of girls in nine groups who checked the various problems listed, and the percentages for the combined group. The girls, who checked many more interests than problems per girl, were less unanimous on the selection of problems. Nevertheless, certain problems seem fairly prevalent. A fifth or more of the girls marked these: lack of self-confidence, self-consciousness, not enough advance in work, lack of money, show emotions too easily, lack of men friends, difficulty in meeting strangers, not good looking, people who make you feel inferior. When these problems are grouped into types and the average number of girls checking problems under each type is considered (Table IX) it appears that problems center chiefly around personality traits, lack of certain possessions having to do with status, and lack of social contacts. Although a few problems concerning work are prevalent, work relations on the whole do not offer the most widespread problems, while religion and church relations seem to offer still fewer problems. The lack of problems connected with moral conduct and the lack of family conflicts indicate a certain placidity which in itself may constitute a problem.

Certain parts of the questionnaire used at the Camp Gray Conference in 1927

and in shorter form at the same place in 1928 were designed to probe immediate interests and problems, others to tap the girl's more remote and ultimate ambitions and desires. Some questions directly

concerned problems, others made an indirect approach, as for instance, asking about day dreams, what the girl would like to be doing at thirty-five years of age, and so forth.

TABLE VII

INTERESTS OF BUSINESS GIRLS

(Responses to check list of interests from Y. W. C. A. clubs in Chicago, Ashland, Kentucky, Kalamazoo, Huron, Nashville, Canton, Janesville, girls at Forest Beach Camp and at the Camp Gray business girls' conference in 1928.)

Interests	Total number of girls who checked each interest	Percentage of girls who checked each interest
Travel.....	312	89.4
Education.....	242	69.3
Saving money.....	233	66.7
Sports.....	231	66.2
Meeting new people.....	231	66.2
Girl friends.....	228	65.3
Reading.....	227	65.0
Girls' clubs.....	213	61.0
Marriage.....	200	57.3
Business life.....	200	57.3
Dancing.....	198	56.7
Money.....	189	54.1
Church.....	186	53.3
Movies.....	175	50.1
Theatres.....	175	50.1
Automobile riding.....	173	49.5
Living at home.....	171	49.0
More and better clothes.....	169	48.4
Own her own car.....	169	48.4
Men friends.....	139*	47.1
Help parents financially.....	164	47.0
Concerts, operas.....	146	41.8
Sew, embroider.....	144	41.3
Play bridge.....	135	38.7
Day dreaming.....	25*	38.5
Mixed clubs.....	131	37.5
New vocation.....	112	32.1
Social service work.....	108	30.9
Live in larger city.....	21*	25.6
Live away from home.....	41	11.8
Total number of girls replying.....	349	

*These items were included in the check list for only a portion of the total group.

TABLE VIII

CHIEF PROBLEMS OF YOUNG BUSINESS GIRLS

(Responses to check list of problems from Y. W. C. A. clubs in Ashland, Kentucky, Kalamazoo, Huron, Nashville, Canton, Janesville, Chicago, and girls at Forest Beach Camp and the Camp Gray business girls' conference in 1928.)

Problems	Total number of girls checking each problem	Percentage of girls checking each problem
Lack of self-confidence.....	120*	42.3
Self-consciousness.....	76*	37.6
Not enough advance in work.....	109	34.0
Lack of money.....	103	32.1
Show emotions too easily.....	93	28.0
Lack of men friends.....	93	29.0
Meeting strangers.....	72	22.4
Not good-looking.....	69	21.5
Feeling of inferiority.....	65	20.2
Lack of education.....	53	16.5
Restlessness.....	52	16.2
Not enough social life.....	51	15.5
Need of better clothes.....	48	15.0
Religious doubts.....	47	14.6
Rooming away from home.....	42	13.1
How much to help parents financially.....	42	13.1
Health of parents.....	41	12.8
Problems of sex conduct.....	39	12.1
Overwork.....	36	11.2
Finding new work.....	34	10.6
Disagreements with fellow-employees.....	34	10.6
Disagreeable employer.....	34	10.6
Homesickness.....	33	10.3
Sickness or some physical ailment.....	32	10.0
Problems of sex knowledge.....	31	9.7
Quarrels at home.....	28	8.7
Girls smoking, drinking, unconventional behavior.....	27	8.4
Lack of girl friends.....	25	7.8
Home not as well furnished as other girls' homes.....	24	7.5
Domineering people at work.....	24	7.5
Left out of parties, lonely.....	15	7.4
Too much supervision by parents.....	22*	6.9
Finding the right church to attend.....	20	6.2
Not appreciated at home.....	17	5.3
Women employers or superiors.....	16	5.0
Loss of position.....	12	3.7
Failures in work undertaken.....	12	3.7
Total number of girls replying.....		321
Total number of problems marked (exclusive of starred items).....		1,473
Average number of problems per girl.....		4.59

*These items were included in the check list for only a portion of the total group.

TABLE IX

CHIEF PROBLEMS OF YOUNG, UNMARRIED BUSINESS GIRLS, GROUPED INTO TYPES OF PROBLEMS*

Problems involving—	Number of girls out of a total of 321 girls checking—		Average number of girls checking questions in each type
	each problem	each type	
PERSONALITY TRAITS			
Lack of self-confidence.....	131		
Difficulty in meeting strangers.....	72		
Not good looking.....	69		
Inferiority complex.....	65		
Failures in work undertaken.....	12		
Show emotions too easily.....	93		
Restlessness.....	52	494	70.6
DEFICIENCIES PROBABLY CONTRIBUTING TO CONCEPT OF SELF			
Lack of money.....	103		
Lack of education.....	53		
Need of better clothes.....	48		
Home not as well furnished as homes of other girls..	24	228	57.0
SOCIAL CONTACTS			
Lack of men friends.....	88		
Lack of social life.....	51		
Lack of girl friends.....	25	164	54.7
HOME, CONCERN FOR PARENTS			
Health of Parents.....	41		
Financial help to parents.....	42	83	41.5
HOME, SEPARATION FROM			
Rooming away from home.....	42		
Homesickness.....	33	75	37.5
WORK RELATIONS			
Not enough advance in work.....	109		
Overworked.....	36		
Finding new work.....	34		
Disagreeable employer.....	34		
Disagreements with fellow workers.....	34		
Domineering people at work.....	24		
Women superiors.....	16		
Loss of position.....	12	299	37.4
RELIGION			
Religious doubts.....	47		
Finding the right church to attend.....	20	67	33.5
MORAL CONDUCT AND CONVENTIONS			
Sex conduct.....	39		
Sex knowledge.....	31		
Smoking, drinking, etc.....	27	97	32.3
SICKNESS, PHYSICAL AILMENTS.....	32	32	32.0
HOME CONFLICTS			
Quarrels.....	28		
Supervision, too much.....	22		
Not appreciated at home.....	17	67	22.3

*Based on Table VIII. The last column is the significant one. The second column is of course weighted by the unequal number of items in each group of problems.

The question, "What things do you really want or need that you cannot afford," revealed five fairly widespread "wants," viz., education, better clothes, a car, ability to help parents financially, and travel. (Table X.)

In another part of the questionnaire this question appeared: "Do you feel that you lack anything which would make you really happy? What?" The six "lacks" most frequently mentioned were: education, some change in the girl's own personality, marriage or men friends, certain possessions like money or a car, friends, better conditions at home. (Table XI.)

Two questions were asked with the purpose of flinging the girl loose from reality and practicality, thus permitting her to make "fairy" wishes, impossible things but to her desirable. Hence two

questions were asked which set up improbable situations. The question "What would you do if you had a year's vacation on pay" brought the answer of "travel" from 77 per cent of the girls and "secure education" from 35 per cent. Smaller numbers gave a variety of other answers, some girls mentioning several things. A similar question, "What would you do if you inherited \$1,000 to spend exactly as you please," revealed four major interests: travel, save or invest some or all of the money, secure education, and help parents or family in some way. (Tables XII and XIII.)

One type at least of day dreaming represents the fulfillment in imagination of unsatisfied interests. These interests may be ones whose lack the girl feels acutely; or they may be interests which she normally expects to fulfill in the future. In either case she lives out the fulfillment in imagination, with a certain vicarious and temporary satisfaction.¹ The question "What kind of day dreams do you repeatedly have" threw into relief three types: day dreams of marriage and a home of her own, day dreams concerning travel, and day dreams concerning her vocational success. Education and helping her family, which appear as major interests when other approaches are made, do not appear in the day dreams. (Table XIV.)

The question "What things that have happened since you began to work have given you the most happiness" brought four fairly widespread replies: success and advance in her work; Y. W. C. A. work or conferences (the questionnaires it must be recalled were filled out at a Y. W. C. A. summer conference); new and stimulating contacts, and new friends, including men friends. (Table XV.)

A question which was almost the opposite of the last one was stated in this way: "What important problems have

TABLE X

SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO THE QUESTION: WHAT THINGS DO YOU REALLY WANT OR NEED THAT YOU CANNOT AFFORD?

Camp Gray Conference, 1927-28.		
	Number of girls	Percentage of girls*
Education, special training.	22	44.0
Car.	21	42.0
Clothes, fur coat, etc.	19	38.0
To make things better at home (financially).	13	26.0
Travel.	13	26.0
Money.	3	6.0
Books.	2	4.0
Parties.	1	2.0
More time for hobbies.	1	2.0
Better position.	1	2.0
An apartment.	1	2.0
Number of "wants".....	97	
Number of girls stating "wants".....	50	
Number of girls stating they did not want or need anything.....	7	

*In this and succeeding tables, percentages are based upon the number of girls replying to each question.

1. For an interesting discussion of the adolescent girl's day dreams see Lorine Pruette, "What's happening in the day dreams of the adolescent girl?" *Journal of Social Hygiene*, X (1924), 419-24.

you solved since you began to work." Four chief types of problems were those concerning her job, concerning money and budgets, conflicts with parents, and adjustments to other people. (Table XVII.)

To reach ultimate ambitions the question was asked "What would you like to be doing when you are 35 years old?" Eighty-two per cent of the girls stated they wished to be married. Only 24 per cent wished to be in business or a profession at that age, and in some cases they also wished marriage. (Table XVI.)

Finally a series of questions was asked concerning things which had caused the girl fear, anger, worry, disgust, or serious quarrels. In every case except "disgusts" the situations calling forth these disturbing emotions most frequently were office or work situations, and in most cases home situations ranged second in frequency. Disgust seemed to be aroused chiefly by petting, too great intimacies, and so forth, with conflicts in the office as the second most frequent cause for disgust. (Table XVIII.)

TABLE XI

SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO THE QUESTION: DO YOU FEEL THAT YOU LACK ANYTHING WHICH WOULD MAKE YOU REALLY HAPPY? WHAT?

	Camp Gray Conference, 1927-28		College Girls***	
	Number of girls	Percentage of girls	Number of girls	Percentage of girls
Education.....	17	21.5	4*	10.3
Some change in personality.....	16	20.3	10	25.6
Marriage, love, men friends.....	14	17.7	7	17.9
Money, car, more leisure time, sorority life....	14	17.7	10	25.6
Friends.....	10	12.7	3	7.7
Better conditions at home.....	9	11.4	4	10.3
Better future in her work.....	2	2.5	2**	5.1
Chance for service.....	1	1.3		
Stronger leadership.....	1	1.3		
Greater freedom.....			3	7.7
Feeling of security.....			1	2.6
Number of replies.....	84		44	
Number of girls stating "lacks".....	79		39	
Lack nothing to make them happy.....	20	20.2	24	38.1
Lack something to make them happy.....	79	79.6	39	61.9
Totals.....	99		63	

*The college girls' desire was not for "education," but for better grades or a different type of education from the one they were getting.

**Not for a "better position," but for any position.

***For this and many succeeding tables comparative figures are given for college girls, based upon the replies of a group of juniors and seniors in a woman's college of the middle west. Tabulation of general data showed that these girls came from the same type of towns but a slightly higher economic level than the business girls.

TABLE XII

SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO THE QUESTION: WHAT WOULD YOU DO IF YOU HAD
A YEAR'S VACATION ON PAY?

	Camp Gray Conference, 1927-28		College Girls	
	Number of girls	Percentage of girls	Number of girls	Percentage of girls
Travel.....	84	77.8	60	82.2
Education, study.....	38	35.2	18	24.7
Help at home, send mother on vacation, etc....	9	8.3	2	2.7
Rest.....	7	6.5		
Stay at home.....	3	2.8	1	1.4
Save some.....	2	1.8		
Give some to church, Y. W. C. A.....	2	1.8		
Go on stage, be a writer, etc.....	1	.9	2	2.7
Prepare for marriage.....			2	2.7
Miscellaneous.....	4	3.7		
Number of replies.....	150		85	
Number of girls replying.....	108		73	

TABLE XIII

SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO THE QUESTION: WHAT WOULD YOU DO IF YOU IN-
HERITED \$1,000 TO SPEND EXACTLY AS YOU PLEASE?

	Camp Gray Conference, 1927-28		College girls	
	Number of girls	Percentage of girls	Number of girls	Percentage of girls
Travel.....	41	38.7	36	49.3
Save or invest some or all.....	33	31.1	11	15.1
Help family.....	28	26.4	6	8.2
Education.....	26	24.5	27	37.0
Clothes, car, summer home, etc.....	10	9.4	16	21.9
Philanthropic or religious purpose.....	10	9.4	1	1.4
Books, pictures, other cultural purposes.....	2	1.9	6	8.2
Prepare for marriage.....	1	.9	3	4.1
Buy a home.....	1	.9	1	1.4
For necessities.....	1	.9	1	1.4
Set up in business for herself.....	1	.9		
Number of replies.....	154		108	
Number of girls replying.....	106		73	

TROUBLE CENTERS AND INTEREST
CENTERS

If we summarize from all of these questions and check lists the outstanding interests and problems set forth or checked by the girls, we arrive at the following centers of attention:

(1) Business life, which is particularly a trouble center, ranking high as the place where many of the girls' problems center. It ranks fairly low as a center of genuine interest. Here then is a definite source of problems. The girl spends approximately a third of each week-day at work and her work means to her difficulties rather more than joy. The fact that most girls regard their work as temporary and confidently hope for an early marriage increases the difficulty.

(2) Education, which is a goal set for the girl by her teachers while she is still in high school. Contacts with college students, particularly with college men, increase the desire. There is need here to distinguish between a genuine yearning for education and the desire for college social life. Need for special vocational

training is a distinct aspect of the problem. The fact that for many girls the desire for further education dies out as the girl becomes "set" in the business world and withdraws from school contacts makes it all the more crucial that her interest in education should be capitalized while it is yet ardent.

(3) Marriage and men friends, the legitimate interests of girls in the twenties, are interests opposed to vocational and educational pursuits. Several problems are involved: How can the girl attain a reasonable success in business and at the same time not eliminate herself as a marriage-candidate? How can she meet men and further her chances for marriage? How can she best adjust, in case she does not marry?

(4) Home and family are centers of attention both because girls wish to help their parents and because they have conflicts with them. The first situation may constitute a problem, for certain girls retain into their twenties the dependency which marked their childhood and which prevents a full development of their personalities.

TABLE XIV

SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO THE QUESTION: WHAT KIND OF DAY DREAMS DO YOU REPEATEDLY HAVE?

	Camp Gray Conference, 1927-28		College girls	
	Number of girls	Percentage of girls	Number of girls	Percentage of girls
Marriage, home of own, etc.....	34	36.2	18	30.0
Business or professional advancement.....	32	34.1	33	54.9
Travel.....	30	31.9	12	20.0
Service, helping others.....	9	9.6		
Education.....	4	4.3	7	11.6
Money.....	4	4.3	3	5.0
Scattered day dreams indulged in by one or two girls each.....	15	16.1	21	35.0
Number of day dreams.....	128		94	
Number of girls replying.....	94		60	

TABLE XV

SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO THE QUESTION: WHAT THINGS THAT HAVE HAPPENED SINCE YOU BEGAN TO WORK HAVE GIVEN YOU THE MOST HAPPINESS?

	Camp Gray Conference 1927	
	Number of girls	Percentage of girls
Success and advance in job, feeling of success or of service.....	27	44.3
Y. W. C. A. work, camp, conferences*.....	19	31.1
New contacts, learning from these of business and of life.....	17	27.9
New friends, including men friends.....	15	24.6
Salary, increases, and independent use of.....	6	9.8
Ability to help her family.....	6	9.8
Independence from her family.....	4	6.6
Responsibility.....	3	4.9
Trips.....	2	3.3
Vacations.....	2	3.3
Miscellaneous replies.....	8	13.1
Number of replies.....	109	
Number of girls replying.....	61	

*It must be remembered that this questionnaire was filled out at a Y. W. C. A. summer conference, which may have somewhat colored the response.

TABLE XVI

SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO THE QUESTION: WHAT WOULD YOU LIKE TO BE DOING WHEN YOU ARE 35 YEARS OLD?

	Camp Gray Conference, 1927-28		College girls	
	Number of girls	Percentage of girls	Number of girls	Percentage of girls
Married, have home of her own, married with children, etc.....	81	81.8	60	81.1
Business or professional success (in a minority of cases in connection with marriage or as alternative to marriage).....	24	24.2	36	48.7
Doing social service or community work (of volunteer nature).....	11	11.1		
Travel.....	5	5.1	1	1.4
Miscellaneous.....	11	11.1	1	1.4
Number of replies.....	132		98	
Number of girls replying.....	99		74	

Less widespread but nevertheless important centers of attention are: (5) girls friends; (6) recreation, including the desire for travel; (7) money and things bought with money; (8) and the girl's concept of her own personality.

(9) One aspect of life which receives rather small notice in the foregoing questionnaire material is that of religion and church relations. Traditionally these aspects of life have always been important.

The failure of the girls to mention them with more frequency either as interests or problems raises a distinct question: Is the business girl completely adjusted religiously; or has religion no meaning for her?

In succeeding chapters these specific centers of attention will be discussed with references to concrete data, case histories, and institutional records.

TABLE XVII

SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO THE QUESTION: WHAT IMPORTANT PROBLEMS HAVE YOU SOLVED SINCE YOU BEGAN TO WORK (OR ENTERED COLLEGE)?

	Camp Gray Conference, 1927-28		College girls	
	Number of girls	Percentage of girls having problems	Number of girls	Percentage of girls having problems
Concerning her work, e. g., whether to take another position, how to do her work, business ethics.....	14	18.7		
School.....			30	53.6
Future work.....			13	23.2
Saving money, budget, economy.....	13	17.3	10	17.8
Conflicts with parents, over leisure time, home duties, money, supervision.....	10	13.3		
Adjustment to other people, e. g., "not having everything my own way," "to be friendly," "not to judge people too quickly.".....	9	12.0	4	7.2
Conflicts concerning such ambitions as travel, education, e. g. whether to spend money on travel or on her family.....	7	9.3		
Friends.....	5	6.7		
Concerning men, e. g. disappointed in her lover, proposals, etc.....	4	5.3	7	12.5
Rooming places, being away from home.....	3	4.0		
Personal qualities, as worrying, lack of confidence.....	2	2.7	6	10.7
Parent died.....	2	2.7		
Keeping out of rut.....	1	1.3		
Miscellaneous (one girl only).....	12	16.0	7	12.5
Number of problems.....	82		77	
Number of girls with problems.....	75		56	
Girls having no problems.....			6	

TABLE XVIII

WORRIES, QUARRELS, DISGUSTS, ETC., EXPERIENCED BY BUSINESS GIRLS
(CAMP GRAY, 1927)

	Number	Percentage of girls
THINGS CAUSING WORRY:		
Concerning work, getting a job, failure to advance, pleasing employer..	23	44.2
Money.....	8	15.4
Home affairs, chiefly health.....	9	17.3
Lack of self-confidence.....	9	17.3
Friends.....	7	13.4
Her own health.....	3	5.8
Miscellaneous.....	3	5.8
Total number of worries.....	62
Number of girls with worries.....	52
Number of girls stating they had no worries.....	7
THINGS CAUSING QUARRELS:		
Office situations.....	11	68.6
Home situations.....	4	25.0
Club committees.....	1	6.3
Total number of quarrels.....	16
Number of girls with quarrels.....	16
Number of girls having had no quarrels.....	39
THINGS CAUSING DISGUST:		
Intimacies, petting, etc., in office and in general.....	13	27.1
Conflicts in office.....	9	18.8
Low ideals of others.....	7	14.5
People who find fault or "act superior".....	3	6.2
Miscellaneous.....	25	52.1
Total number of disgust-situations.....	57
Number of girls feeling disgust.....	48
Number of girls without such situations.....	2
THINGS CAUSING ANGER:		
Office situations.....	21	45.6
Home situations.....	8	17.4
Other people.....	7	15.2
Unfair treatment.....	6	13.0
Teasing, sarcasm, nagging.....	4	8.7
Her own qualities.....	2	4.4
Miscellaneous.....	3	6.5
Total number of anger-situations.....	51
Number of girls feeling anger.....	46
Number of girls without anger situations.....	5
THINGS CAUSING FEAR:		
Concerning work, loss of job, failure, etc.....	12	48.0
Specific things, as Negroes, darkness, etc.....	10	40.0
Mother's health.....	2	8.0
Her own health.....	1	4.0
Miscellaneous.....	5	20.0
Total number of fear-situations.....	30
Number of girls feeling fear.....	25
Number of girls without fears.....	18

CHAPTER IV

Home and Family Life

FUNDAMENTAL LOYALTY

Of fundamental importance in the study of young people is the relation of the young person to the parental home. Specialists in child study are agreed upon the need for a stable, protective and loving home life for the little child. They are just as assured of the necessity for the adolescent to achieve a growing independence and for the older adolescent to be capable of handling his own affairs.¹ It is from this point of view that the material concerning the young business girl and her home will be discussed.

The statement has already been made that many of the girls in the Y. W. C. A. live at home. Of 421 club and conference girls from Chicago and other cities of the middle west, only 91 (21.6 per cent) lived away from home. Even among girls who applied at the Chicago Y. W. C. A. Employment Bureau over half were Chicago girls.

The closeness of the bond between these girls and their parents is evidenced by striking facts. In reporting the disposition of their free time, the family constantly outranks masculine friends, feminine friends or clubs, when vacations, week-ends or evenings are considered. To the question, "What would you do if you inherited \$1,000 to spend exactly as you please," 26.4 per cent of the girls replied that they would spend a part or all of it in helping the family in some way, help buy a home for their parents, or take their parents on a vacation. Travel, further education, and saving are the

other major items (38.7 per cent, 24.5 per cent and 31.1 per cent respectively). Asked, "What changes would you make at home," 36 per cent of those replying stated they wished no changes, 32 per cent wished to "help their parents live more easily," to provide new homes, new furniture and so forth, while only 18 per cent implied any criticisms of the home by such wishes as "more independence from parents," "more understanding from parents," "fewer quarrels," and so on. (See Table XIX.)

TABLE XIX

SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO THE QUESTION:
WHAT CHANGES IF ANY WOULD YOU
LIKE TO MAKE AT HOME?

	Camp Gray Conference, 1927	
	Number of girls	Percentage of girls
Would make no change....	18	36
Have a new home, new furniture, etc.....	9	18
Help parents to live more easily.....	7	14
Do away with quarrels, misunderstandings, etc.....	7	14
Have more independence...	2	4
To live with parents.....	3	6
Miscellaneous.....	5	10
Number of replies.....	51	
Number of girls.....	50	

During the course of this study some seventy girls were interviewed or wrote life history material. Fifty of these girls were in the special group of unmarried girls not over thirty years of age, with which this study is especially concerned.

1. See Leta S. Hollingworth, *The Psychology of the Adolescent*; Ernest R. and Gladys H. Groves, *Parents and Children*.

In more than half the cases the girls stated that they had no conflicts at home; some girls described their home life as "ideal"; others spoke of their mothers as their confidantes. In two cases the mothers had worked when the children were young and the children had been taught to decide things for themselves, even their own quarrels. They felt no oppression from their parents as they grew up. In a number of cases specific situations appeared which indicated a rather autocratic control of parent over child, to which the daughter submitted without open rebellion.

Case 1.—In this family there is sufficient wealth for the family to own a car, employ a chauffeur and to build a home in a very good Chicago residential neighborhood. The girl, who is nineteen years old, is above the average in intelligence (as shown by her score on the Otis intelligence test) and wishes to go to college. Her father, however, could see no need for her to attend school beyond the second year of high school. Accordingly she stopped and has been working for three years in four different office positions. With the exception of a few months' time, she has attended night school and plans to continue until she has completed her high school work. Her father has promised that she may go to college at the same time her younger brother goes but she fears something may happen to cause him to change his mind. From her salary of \$25.00 a week she pays \$8.00 to her parents (although they do not need the money). She has been accustomed to good clothes and recreation and finds herself unable to save much money to use for college in case her father fails her. She would like to have new and wider experiences, such as living in different Chicago communities or in New York City. Her father cannot imagine her living anywhere than at home "because women didn't live away from home when he was young." Her parents object to having her stay with friends over night.

This girl gives all the impressions of smoldering resentment against her father who imposes his wishes on her. Her persistence in attending night school and the type of books she reads indicate a genuine intellectual interest which she feels (since her father has money) she has a right to indulge. The fact that her attitude rather than the father's is the accepted community attitude gives her justification for her resentment.

Case 2.—In this case almost the same situation occurs. The girl who is twenty years old has worked for three years and earns \$100 a month. She graduated from high school and has a mental test score which places her in the "superior" group. Her father owns two cars and a summer cottage. When she graduated from high school she wished to go to college and a relative offered to assist her. Her family, however, was not in favor of the plan. She has now developed ambitions which require further training but she will not approach her family on the question of college. She gives all of her money to her mother, who gives her in return money for lunch and \$24.00 a month spending money. The mother buys all of her clothes for her.

This girl, although for three years she has been earning sufficient money to be self-supporting, still has the status of a child at home and accepts without protest this position. Many girls who give all their money to their mothers receive in return in clothes, food and home services more than their salaries would pay for. The fact remains, nevertheless, that their mothers are preventing them from "growing up" and from becoming independent of the mother's supervision.

These two cases are perhaps unusual in that the families had sufficient money to assist their daughters to attend school and gratify their educational and vocational ambitions but by refusing to do so forced the girls to follow parental rather than their own ambitions. In many more cases the family apparently needed additional money, which the working daughters supplied. In no case was any resentment against the parents discovered when this situation existed.

Case 3.—Mildred followed her two years of high school with many years of evening training and now at the age of 26 earns \$38 a week. Her father died when she was a child and the mother sewed to support herself and three children. The children after two years in high school began to work, thus supporting the home. Now a boy and girl are both married and Mildred has the responsibility of the apartment where she and her mother live. She says she does not care much for money and that she is saving her money so her mother can open a small shop. She seems unusually well contented with her life, although her social contacts are meagre.

Case 4.—Mary stopped school after three years of high school and began to work. The immediate occasion was that her older sister who had been helping the family had married. She has studied in evening school since and is seriously planning to attend college. At first she paid a certain sum to her parents each week but when her mother became ill she began to give almost all she earned to the family.

Case 5.—Janet, who had three years of high school, lived at home and gave almost half of her salary to her family. Her father is not strong and does not earn much money, one brother dislikes to help the family, and there are younger brothers and sisters. When she was offered a better position in Chicago and began to live away from home, she continued her policy of sending home \$10 a week and of buying many extra things for her mother and younger sister, although she now has full living expenses to pay and finds herself unable to save very much. She visits her home often although it is a night's ride from Chicago. Her attitude is evident in her statement, "What is good for the family is good for me."

In several cases the girl was in complete sympathy with her mother and willing to help her but resented the tendency of some other member of the family to live at home without working. In one case the father had not worked for years.

Case 6.—My father was too lazy to work. For eight or more years my mother went out and slaved for us children who were too young to do anything except to go to school. I am working hard now to repay my mother for all she has done for me, but as for my father, I have no respect for him. He and I have not talked to each other for about four years.

In two other cases the mother was a widow and the daughter willingly gave her money, but one resented the presence in the family of a brother who drank and rarely worked, and the other the presence of a married sister who lived at home with her husband and children without contributing anything to the family finances.

The strong emotional bond between daughter and, usually, the mother is evident in these cases. It does not always happen, even when the mother supervises the spending of the money, that the daughter is dependent upon the mother in other respects. Many girls carry on their social activities with entire independence

and perhaps along lines quite contrary to their mother's wishes. Usually the daughter assumes the right to do as she pleases and does not tell her mother the things of which her mother would disapprove. Thus the girl who resented her father's "laziness," at one period associated with a group of boys and girls who went to cabarets and drank. Her experience was that a small amount of alcohol intoxicated her. Her mother never knew of these escapades and she said she would "kill herself" before she would tell her mother. At the other extreme, however, are girls living away from home who write to their mothers every detail of their lives and pattern their lives after the mother's conception of life rather than according to the demands of the place where they live. In most cases the mother lives in a small town, the daughter works in a city, and circumstances are so different in the two places that the daughter by following the small-town customs estranges herself from groups of young people in the city.

Cases are too few to predicate the prevalence of types of relationship. Nevertheless the following types or patterns of home relationship exist:

1. The girl who is autocratically dominated by her parents without regard to her wishes, interests or ambitions. The girl, being young, submits, but usually resents the situation. The autocratic control may center about handling money, refusal to allow the girl training she desires and which the parents could afford to give her, bringing pressure on the girl to follow the parent's standards rather than those of her own group.

2. The girl who willingly accepts her place as a family member and contributes to the family unity financially. This girl has never imagined herself outside the family and finds most of her interests satisfied in it or through ways approved by it.

3. The girl who accepts financial responsibility and is loyal to her parents, but who carries on other phases of her life in accordance with her own wishes.

4. The girl who assumes the position of "man of the house," usually in the case of a widowed mother and an only or elder daughter. In this case the mother makes the home and the daughter earns the money and makes outside contacts.

The danger in the too-complacent relationships is that the daughter will find too much of her emotional and companionship satisfaction at home and not make a sufficient number of contacts with young people of her own age.¹

THE BROKEN HOME

The broken home presents special problems. In all cases where there was a widowed mother the daughter was exceedingly loyal to her mother, both in providing support and in affection. The tendency seems to be for the daughter to assume a protective attitude toward the mother and in many respects fill the place of the father. Individual plans are most willingly laid aside in this situation and even very young girls assume family responsibilities.

The reverse of the above situation is found in cases where the mother or father remarries after the daughter is grown. When step-fathers or step-mothers came into the family while the daughter was a child, the family was united. But when the step-father or step-mother came after the daughter had become independent and had assumed some leadership in the family, there was dissension. The result, so far as the present series of cases is concerned, was that the daughters left home, and lived elsewhere in the same city, usually, in the case of a step-father, maintaining friendly relations with the mother and seeing her regularly.

In almost a third of the cases (31 per cent) for which data was secured, one or both parents were dead, and in 9 per cent the parents were separated, a total of 40 per cent living in broken homes out of the group of 340 girls. There is no comparative data for the general population, but it seems probable that this is an unusually high percentage of broken homes for girls in the late teens and early twenties. In two-thirds of the cases of the death of a parent, it was the father who was dead. This situation no doubt accounts for the early entrance of many of the girls into business and perhaps for the high intelligence of the girls, who, under more favorable circumstances, might have entered college instead of an office upon graduation from high school.

OLD-WORLD ATTITUDES IN THE HOME

Among the girls studied the extent to which an old-world background played a part in the home life was judged by the use of a foreign language in the home. Out of a total of 414 business girls from middle western cities and towns, 33.6 per cent stated that a foreign language was used in their homes. When a division is made between girls from Chicago and from smaller towns, the percentage of foreign language homes for Chicago is, quite naturally, higher and that for smaller cities lower than this figure. German is the most frequently spoken tongue, with Bohemian, Yiddish, and Swedish the only others which appeared in any numbers.

The use of a foreign language in the home is usually an indication that the children live in two worlds. At home and usually in their church relationships they abide by European customs with reference to such things as attitudes toward their parents, food and its preparation, amusements, moral standards, etc. In school they come early into contact with American customs and when they begin

1. For further discussion, see R. S. and J. T. Cavan, "Attitudes of Young Business Women toward Home and Married Life," *Religious Education*, XXII (1927), 817-20.

to work they are drawn entirely away from their national group during many hours of the day. In cities especially, where lunch is eaten near the place of work and where new friendships are formed which may be contrary to national lines, the separation tends to be complete between the day-time life of the girl with its American customs and the evening and week end life among her family and their friends. As the girl makes friends at work or in evening clubs she becomes more and more an American: the old pattern of habits given her by her family slips away and she tends to dress, talk and act like the girls she meets while her attitudes and interests undergo a similar shift. The usual story is that the mother disapproves and is perhaps shocked at the things her daughter does and says. The daughter is placed under considerable strain, not only because of her attachment to her mother but also because she shares in the mother's attitudes and is often confused and uncertain regarding which course to follow.

In two respects in particular is there apt to be conflict. The European attitude regarding children, especially daughters, is that they are family assets and their work should benefit the family. Thus the parents often assume that the salary earned by the children should be turned over to the parents, so long as the children remain in the home. This atti-

tude, which is in contrast to the usual American attitude of freedom, has already been discussed.

The other point of conflict is over the amount of freedom the daughter may have. The old attitude is that daughters should marry and a part of the parents' duty was to protect and care for the daughter until she was handed over to the protection and care of her husband. Early hours, close supervision, and the centering of the girl's activities in the home are part of this plan of life—quite in contrast to the American girl's freedom in coming and going and in choosing her own friends and recreations.

Often the entire problem of adjustment to this difficult situation is placed upon the girl. The parents live in a closed circle of friends who share their views and their entire lives are organized in the one fixed pattern. The daughter, who is young, who sees both her parent's point of view and her own, is usually the one who must be tolerant and considerate if any open rupture is to be avoided. Sometimes the girl feels it cannot be avoided, and leaves home. The second story with which this monograph opens gives details from several cases in which the parents were Germans, old-world in attitude, and the daughters were young Americans who resented the rather autocratic though well-meant parental control.

CHAPTER V

Intellectual Abilities and Interests

BUSINESS GIRLS ARE BRIGHT

The part that intelligence plays in facilitating adjustments is a mooted question at present. The popular idea of a few years ago that most of the delinquency of children and the criminality of adults was due to feeble-mindedness or dull mentality has been dissipated by the studies of such men as Healy and Murchison. Nevertheless mental ability, at least as measured on standard intelligence tests, is an important factor in certain phases of life. It helps to determine, for instance, how far a boy or girl will be able to succeed in school. It also helps to determine how well he will succeed in certain occupations.

Business girls were given the Otis Self Administering Test of Mental Ability, Higher Form A, a test standardized chiefly upon high school and college students and hence fitted to the age group

into which the business girls fall.¹ The purpose of giving the test was to determine the standing of these girls when compared with other groups of young people; to throw some light on the possible wastefulness involved in permitting bright girls to enter a poorly paid occupation when with more training they might enter a profession; and to determine the standards of intellectual capacity necessary for success in office work—a point of value in vocational guidance of young girls contemplating their first jobs.

Table XX gives the scores made by the business girls on the Otis test, with equivalent rankings in mental age and

1. The tests were given to 277 girls under 30 years of age, in Y. W. C. A. clubs and residence, in Chicago and other cities, and to girls at a Y. W. C. A. summer conference. It is impossible to state how representative these girls are of business girls as a whole, since they all involve the selective factor of being in some way connected with Y. W. C. A. activities.

TABLE XX

SCORES OF BUSINESS GIRLS ON THE OTIS SELF ADMINISTERING TEST OF MENTAL ABILITY, HIGHER EXAMINATION A.*

Number of girls	Otis Score, [30 minute basis]	Mental Age	I. Q.	Classification	Percentage
7.....	1-22	-11 yr. 9 mo.	1-79	Feeble-minded and Border Zone....	2.5
17.....	23-32	11.10-13.6	80-89	Dull.....	6.1
49.....	33-42	13.7-15.3	90-99	Normal.....	53.5
99.....	43-52	15.4-16.8	100-109	Normal.....	
71.....	53-62	16.9-17.9	110-119	Superior.....	25.6
33.....	63-72	18.0-19.2	120-129	Very superior....	12.3
1.....	73-75	19.3 -	130-	Very superior....	
Total 277					100.0

*The girls were permitted to write twenty minutes on the test. Scores are given, however, on the basis of thirty minutes spent on the test, in accordance with a conversion table in the test manual. Mental age, I. Q. and classification are in accordance with a table furnished with the manual of directions for the test.

I. Q. and descriptive classification. These scores are decidedly higher than Otis expects of the general population. (See Table XXI.)

It is clearly apparent that the group of business girls tested have a very low percentage who are dull and that the percentage of superior and very superior girls is high. This indicates that the girls tested are a selected and superior group when compared with the general population. It means that the demands of skilled office work are such that it either does not appeal to girls without good ability or that such girls, when they enter the work, find it too difficult and tend to drop out. The files of the Chicago Y. W. C. A. Employment Bureau contain records of young girls who have alternated between office positions and factory or domestic work and who, while they prefer office work, are willing to accept other positions of a less specialized nature. The office record of these girls is usually of temporary positions or of frequent changes—in other words they lack either the training or ability to secure and retain permanent office positions and in time pass into other occupations which make less demand upon mental capacity than does the office work.

When comparing groups a simple index of group ability is the median score. When individuals of a group are ranked from low to high on intelligence test scores the score of the middle girl is the

median score and indicates that just half the girls have higher scores and half have lower. The median score is, therefore, one kind of average. Various studies which have been published give median scores for groups of college, high school, and continuation school students. These school classifications have definite vocational correlatives. The college students will, for the most part, enter professional, semi-professional, or the higher salaried business positions; the high school students are a combined group of potential college graduates and young office workers; the continuation school group represents children who have left school at fourteen or fifteen years of age and who are for the most part in factory or very unskilled store or office positions. The median scores for six colleges, a group of ten junior colleges, and a group of 21 colleges, are all higher than the median score for the business girls. (See Table XXII.) On the other hand the median score for the business girls is equal to the median score for students in teacher training colleges and is higher than the median scores for high school pupils and decidedly higher than the median scores for continuation school pupils. If, for the moment, the educational and vocational destiny of young people may be thought of solely in terms of mental capacity, one might say that those of low normal or dull mentality will ordinarily drop out of school before high school is reached or completed to enter the un-

TABLE XXI

PERCENTAGE EXPECTED IN GENERAL POPULATION COMPARED WITH PERCENTAGE OF BUSINESS GIRLS' SCORES IN EACH CLASS OF INTELLIGENCE

	Feeble-minded and border line	Dull	Normal	Superior	Very superior
Expected distribution*.....	5%	15%	60%	15%	5%
Business girls.....	2.5%	6.1%	53.5%	25.6%	12.3%

*A. S. Otis, *Percentile Graph for Otis Self-Administering Tests of Mental Ability.*

skilled or unspecialized vocations; that the high school retains a group of normal ability, many of whom, chiefly from the upper ranks intellectually, will enter college, and many more of whom, chiefly from the normal and upper ranks intellectually, will enter specialized office work such as stenography or bookkeeping. The nearness with which the median score for business girls approaches the college medians and the high

percentage of business girls with superior intelligence indicates that the office girls' group contains many girls who would benefit by college education and who have the capacity for types of work of a more specialized nature and commanding better salaries than office positions. Unfortunately many factors besides capacity enter into a girl's decision to enter college or business after she is graduated from high school (such as

TABLE XXII

COMPARISON OF MENTAL TEST SCORES MADE BY BUSINESS GIRLS WITH SCORES MADE BY OTHER GROUPS OF YOUNG PEOPLE, IN TERMS OF I. Q.

	Lowest score	Lower quartile	Median	Upper quartile	Highest score
Oberlin College Freshmen, men and women ¹	119
University of Illinois Freshmen, men and women ²	118
Junior college Sophomore women ³	88	111	116	120	128
Ohio State University, all classes ⁴	116
University of Minnesota Freshmen, men and women ⁵	114
University of Idaho, all classes ⁶	112
University of Florida, all classes ⁷	111
2516 college students, men and women ⁸	78	104	111	120	133
Business girls.....	67	98	107	117	133
Illinois state teachers' colleges ⁹	103
Public school girls, age fifteen, Massachusetts ¹⁰	103
Senior high school pupils, 370 Illinois towns ¹¹	100
Chicago high school Freshmen ¹²	99.4
Chicago grade 9B ¹³	94
Continuation school pupils—					
Pennsylvania, girls, ages 14-15 ¹⁴	88
Wisconsin, boys and girls, ages 14-18 ¹⁵	85.5
Massachusetts, girls, age 15 ¹⁶	84
New York City, boys and girls, ages 15-16 ¹⁷	70

1—L. M. Terman, "Intelligence Tests in Colleges and Universities," *School and Society*, XIII No. 330 (April 23, 1921), 482. All scores from the Terman reference were given in terms of the Army Alpha. By using the conversion table given by Otis in his *Manual of Directions and Key*, an approximation of the I. Q. for each score was obtained. The I. Q.'s may be several points too low or too high but they are sufficiently accurate for comparative purposes.

2—Terman, *ibid.*

3—Based on table in L. V. Koos, *The Junior College*, p. 88. Koos gives the scores in Army Alpha. They have been converted into I. Q.'s as explained in Note 1.

4, 5, 6, 7—Terman, *op. cit.*

8—A. S. Otis, *Manual of Directions and Key for Intermediate and Higher Examinations*, p. 7. These students represent 21 colleges and universities. The I. Q.'s are converted from Otis scores.

9—Charles W. Odell, "Are College Students a Select Group?", *University of Illinois Bulletin XXIV*, No. 36 (May 10, 1927), 33. The figure given in the table is the mean I. Q., which, from other data in Odell, also appears to be the median I. Q.

10—L. T. Hopkins, *The Intelligence of Continuation School Children in Massachusetts*, p. 90. This figure is the combined score for four communities.

11—Otis, *op. cit.*

12—Joseph Sudweeks, "Intelligence of the Continuation School Pupils of Wisconsin," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XIX (1927) p. 608.

13—Otis, *op. cit.*

14—Sudweeks, *op. cit.*, pp. 607-08.

15—*Ibid.* This figure is the combined score for pupils in eighteen Wisconsin towns.

16—Hopkins, *op. cit.* This score is for four communities.

17—Sudweeks, *op. cit.*, pp. 607-08.

finances of the family, social traditions of family and community, individual interests), and much excellent college material never reaches college doors. Many young girls graduate from high school with the desire for college, but find themselves unable to attend. They enter office positions and their desire for higher education dies for lack of encouragement and financial support. A real problem lies here for the educator who is interested in seeing capable young people receive the maximum training and for the worker with girls who wishes to see each girl reach the maximum development possible to her.²

HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATION A NECESSITY

The amount of general education was ascertained for all of the girls who gave first hand information to this study and for applicants for office positions at two Chicago employment bureaus. The results with percentages for groups having less than high school, two years of high school, three or four years of high school, and more than high school are given in Table XXIII. The first three columns for groups of Chicago girls show surprisingly similar results. Approximately 10 girls out of every hundred represented by these figures have less than high school education, approximately 25 have one or two years of high school, approximately 50 have had three or four years of high school, while only about 10 out of every hundred have had any college training. For other cities than Chicago there are more girls in the group having three to four years of high school, but otherwise no essential difference. There is, however, another group of office workers with more general education. The Chicago Collegiate Bureau of Occupations specializes in placing col-

lege trained girls.³ Consequently they have a selected group. Eighty out of a hundred girls applying for office positions through this bureau have had some and many of them four years of college work, while there are practically none who have had less than three years of high school work. The figures for this bureau are included in order to show a side of the picture omitted by the other figures. However, inasmuch as there is only one bureau specializing in college trained girls, and many which handle all types of girls, it is probable that the figures under columns I, II, III and V are more nearly typical for Chicago and the country as a whole than are the figures in column IV.

These figures should be interpreted not only as the conditions which exist but as a standard of education necessary for success in specialized office positions. There are many girls who have not had high school training; few of them succeed in any but routine office positions. From data which will be presented later (education and salary) it will be apparent that unless augmented by specific vocational training college work is not necessarily the best training for success in office positions—at least not the type of college experiences and training which most girls have received.

Data on business education, although not secured from many girls, are, however, significant. In the section on "Interrelations of Factors" it will be noted that business education is an essential to success, hence practical advice would urge a girl with a choice between a year at college or a year in a business school to choose the latter if her goal is office work. The Y. W. C. A. Employment

2. An interesting study of the intelligence of high school students, not included in the table due to lack of comparable scores, is William F. Book, *The Intelligence of High School Seniors*.

3. This bureau handles all types of vocations including highly trained professions. Placing office workers is a minor portion of their work. The figures given here cover only office positions and in no way represent the work of the bureau as a whole either in type of position handled, salaries, or educational standards. The office group is undoubtedly the least trained group they handle.

Bureau records in Chicago indicate that about one-fourth of the applicants for business positions have attended business college. This is in addition to the number, large in city schools, who have taken commercial courses in high school.

It would seem that a minimum of four years high school plus a sound course in business training is essential for success in skilled office work, and from data to be presented that college training, however desirable as a background, is no substitute for the technical business training.

INTELLECTUAL INTEREST AND AMBITIONS

One conclusion to be drawn from the preceding two sections is that many business girls stop attending school long before they have taxed their mental ability to the limit. Some of them even when they are capable lose interest in school and are glad to begin working after two years in high school. Others acquire in high school a desire for further learning and graduate or leave high school with

TABLE XXIII

GENERAL EDUCATION OF YOUNG BUSINESS GIRLS (UNDER 30 YEARS OF AGE, UNMARRIED)

	I		II		III		IV		V	
	Num- ber	Per- centage	Num- ber	Per- centage	Num- ber	Per- centage	Num- ber	Per- centage	Num- ber	Per- centage
6th grade.....		1	
7th grade.....	1		1		4				13	
8th grade.....	12	13.4	5	10.2	29	8.7		...		5.7
1st year high.....	5		..		17		1		6	
2nd year.....	21	26.8	10	16.9	67	22.1	2	.7	25	12.7
3rd year high.....	14		8		35		1		9	
4th year high.....	34	49.5	27	59.3	135	44.7	78	18.8	170	73.0
1 year college*.....	5		2		15		28		12	
2 years college.....	3		3		19		69		4	
3 years college.....	1		..		8		36		..	
4 years college.....	1		..		12		169		4	
Some college.....	..		2		30		25		..	
1 year grad. work...	..	10.3	..	11.9	..	22.1	8	79.6	1	8.6
Some high school...	1	1.7	9	2.4	4	.9
Total.....	97	100.0	59	100.0	380	100.0	421	100.0	245	100.0

*Or normal school.

I—Y. W. C. A. classes and volunteers in Chicago.

II—Girls at Forest Beach Camp, 1928, almost all from Chicago.

III—Girls applying for positions at Y. W. C. A. Employment Bureau.

IV—Girls applying for positions at Chicago Collegiate Bureau of Occupations.

V—Cities other than Chicago, Y. W. C. A. club girls and girls at Camp Gray conference, 1927, 1928.

the ambition to study further. Too often they come from families unable to finance a college education and it can hardly be expected that many young girls will have the training and judgment to enable them to enter college with little or no money, to work their way through. There are several possibilities. To work a few years, save money, gain vocational experience, and then enter college is one of them. A number of girls gave this as the dream (it was scarcely specific enough to be called a plan) which they had had upon graduation. But they also admitted that they knew they would never give up their salaries and work their way through college. The first few years after graduation bring a shifting in interest and by the time the girl has had an opportunity to save money so that she could attend college she has lost her interest. The impetus toward general learning given in high school is lost as friends are made in the business world and new ambitions arise. Sometimes it is men friends and marriage. Sometimes it is some definite vocational goal which may not require college training. Sometimes it is simply that the girl becomes adjusted to business life.

On the whole the best incentive to further education for the business girl is some definite vocational ambition. One girl who had studied bookkeeping in high school struggled through years of night school in order to become an accountant. Several girls in the class in journalism at the Y. W. C. A. were trying out their abilities along that line before making definite plans to study journalism. The general interest in education gradually dies out unless the girl continues, from the day she leaves public school, to carry some evening course. Girls were discovered who were studying Spanish or domestic science in the evenings, apparently because of general curiosity and interest.

Other incentives for education have been discovered in social relationships. One girl studied English at night to rid herself of a Polish accent. Several were engaged to or going with college men. They were drawn into college social functions and at times were snubbed by college girls. These girls have a particularly difficult problem. Evening classes, extension and correspondence courses do not fulfill their needs, for it is the social life of college, the ability to understand the college argot, to talk familiarly of the college heroes and big events for which they long.

The girls who are interested in formal training and degrees stand in one group. There is, however, another group—the girls who attend the informal classes, discussion groups and lecture courses offered by such organizations as the Y. W. C. A. The motives back of attendance at these classes vary. Some girls, such as those who study English, are often trying to remedy some lack in themselves. Others are trying out their abilities, as in the case of the girls referred to who were in the class in journalism. Still others are generally curious and choose their courses not according to any previous interest but on the basis of the relative attractiveness of the posters advertising the courses. Some girls take a particular course because a friend is taking it and they dislike to enter a group of strangers. Other girls come because they wish to make friends or have spare time, and choose in haphazard manner. Often there is no plan, but rather the following of a dilettante interest. One girl's courses at the Y. W. C. A. through successive years had included gymnasium, ukulele, and psychology. In most city Y. W. C. A.'s the Association does not attempt to compete with formally organized evening schools but tries to provide for general cultural interests and to stimulate the girls into discovering more fundamental interests.

The results of the questionnaires and check lists given in Chapter II show that the girls feel a decided educational lack. In checking up on this interest the questionnaires were divided into two groups, girls who showed no interest in education as evidenced by their answers to certain questions (Nos. 50 and 51, see appendix 1) and those who in one or more answers indicated an educational interest. The girls were evenly divided into two groups. Of the girls who were interested in education, 56 per cent stated they were carrying on some definite study, either in evening classes, extension or correspondence courses, or individual lessons, as in music. Of the girls who indicated no interest in education, only 32 per cent were carrying any definite classes. This seems to indicate a definite attempt on the part of girls to obtain further training. The subjects studied included accounting, stenography, English, art, music, psychology.

It is probable that educational interests, often linked with vocational ambitions, identify one type of girl in business. The question may fairly be raised whether the Y. W. C. A. may not draw to itself a rather high proportion of these serious minded girls, especially in those cities where an educational program is offered. If the group of girls studied included an unselected group of girls it is probable that the proportion interested in education would be less and more sharply delimited from groups interested in other activities.

"LITERARY DIGEST" OR "TRUE STORY"?

Reading may be thought of as a more or less intellectual activity. Educators now make much of developing in the child a "reading adaptation", which is achieved when the child, after mastering the mechanics of reading, takes a voluntary interest in reading and turns to books as sources of information and pleasure. The

TABLE XXIV

NUMBER OF TIMES AND PERCENTAGE OF MAGAZINES IN EACH CLASS MENTIONED BY INDUSTRIAL AND BY BUSINESS GIRLS

	Industrial Girls*		Industrial Girls†		Business Girls	
	Times mentioned	Percentage of Magazines mentioned	Times mentioned	Percentage of Magazines	Times mentioned	Percentage of Magazines
Magazines of the informational type, e.g. <i>Literary Digest</i> , <i>National Geographic</i> , <i>World's Work</i> , etc.	11	3.0	35	2.5	44	27.1
Magazines with fiction of some value and articles, e.g. <i>Ladies Home Journal</i> , <i>Saturday Evening Post</i> , <i>Pictorial Review</i> , <i>Red Book</i> , etc.	181	49.5	902	65.5	118	72.9
Magazines containing only stories of low value, e.g. <i>True Story</i> , <i>I Confess</i> , <i>Hot Dog</i> , etc.	173	47.5	439	32.0	Not mentioned	
Totals.	365	100.0	1376	100.0	162	100.0

*From Hazel Grant Ormsbee, *The Young Employed Girl*, p. 78.

†From A. W. Jefferis, *Study of Reading Interests of Young People in Industry*, p. 166.

tendency of an adult to read in his free time or to benefit himself is an indication that the adult earlier had made a reading adaptation, that is, he had reached a certain intellectual achievement.

The interviews with business girls showed a great variability among girls with regard to reading habits. A few girls, chiefly those who were interested in writing, had small libraries of their own, to which they were gradually adding a few books. Many more read nothing more weighty than *Colliers* or the *Saturday Evening Post*. Few read professional material. The 69 girls from Camp Gray whose questionnaires have been analyzed were asked to name several books and magazines they enjoyed reading during the past year. Faced with a questionnaire and the request for a quick reply it is perhaps not surprising that the average number of books mentioned was only 1.3 per girl, the average number of magazines only 2.3 per girl. Books of fiction were mentioned 71 times, non-fiction 21 times. Among magazines the *American* was mentioned 32 times, *Good Housekeeping* 17 times, *Cosmopolitan* 16 times, *Saturday Evening Post* 11 times, *McCalls* 9 times, *Literary Digest* 8 times. Numerous other magazines were read by one to three girls.

This list may not seem very erudite. Every magazine in this list, however, contains articles as well as fiction. Compared to the magazines and journals which a group of professional women would read the list may appear trivial. Compared to the reading of industrial girls who have on the average two to four years less of schooling, the list stands out in marked contrast.

Table XXIV compares the number of times different types of magazines were cited by two groups of girls in middle adolescence, employed chiefly in factories, with the number of times the magazines were cited by business girls. In the former groups fiction, and especially fic-

tion of a lurid quality, predominates. The business girls in the group studied read a relatively high percentage of informational magazines and do not mention the lurid fiction at all.

A study of reading interests of employed girls between the ages of fourteen and eighteen who attended the Milwaukee Vocational School gives the following list of magazines in order of popularity:⁴ *True Story*, *Colliers*, *American Magazine*, *Woman's Home Companion*, *Ladies Home Journal*, *True Romance*, *Photoplay*, *Love Story Magazine*, *Red Book*, *Pictorial Review*. Note that no magazine in the informational class is included and that three of the ten are of the ultra-romantic type of fiction.

It is true that the girls in continuation schools for whom these studies were made are younger than the business girls. This need not, however, invalidate the comparison. Terman regards a girl's reading interests as fixed by the time she is fifteen years of age.⁵

THE BUSINESS GIRL AND ADULT EDUCATION

The intellectual standing and interests of the young business girl should be a distinct challenge to teachers and club leaders to stir them to activity to the end that girls of college age with promise should if possible be given an opportunity for college work, or for definite vocational training; that girls under their guidance be apprised of local resources for education such as evening classes, extension courses, lecture courses; that rich informal education be offered through some carefully planned program of adult education. In short, that the girls with ability be stimulated to study and be provided with a sound but interesting curriculum of courses.

4. Wm. F. Rasche, *The Reading Interests of Young Workers*, p. 41.

5. Quoted in Henriette R. Walter, *Girl Life in America, a study of backgrounds*, p. 117. This study corroborates the great interest in romantic literature among girls.

CHAPTER VI

Friends

GIRL FRIENDS

Girls need girl friends. The girls who had none felt this lack as an acute problem. Not all want the same type of friendship. Some want chums and feel "lost" even though they have a number of less intimate friends. Others are satisfied with a circle of good friends, and one girl stated she did not want a chum because it hampered her.

These friends and chums come from various sources. In a number of cases the chum was a sister a few years older or younger. While the girls themselves seemed fairly well satisfied with this arrangement it seemed to an outside observer to have disadvantages. In one case the older sister really looked younger; she was *petite*, vivacious, bright-eyed. The younger sister was the taller, less talkative, more mature in manner and less likely to attract immediate attention among young people. In parties and in acquiring "dates" she was at a decided disadvantage, and because her chum was her sister she rarely was invited or went anywhere alone where her own good points would not be in contrast with her sister's gaiety. In another case there was an age difference of seven years. The older girl felt somewhat out of place among her sister's group of friends but having none of her own continued with them. The younger girl had come to depend on her older sister to take the initiative when they were together, although in situations, such as her work, where she was alone, she was able to act independently. It seems that the sister-sister combination often has a disadvantage for one or the other and because the

two are closely linked there is little opportunity for the one at a disadvantage to free herself. The solution lies plainly in broadening contacts and provision for some social activities in different groups.

The high school sorority, often disparaged as trivial, was found to play an important function in holding together high school friends during the period of transition from the accustomed group organization of school to the almost unorganized associations of business. High school friends not organized into some type of club usually lost track of each other when business life prevented regular contacts. In some cases the girl finds the sorority a source of continued satisfaction and an outlet for many interests. New friends made in business are sometimes taken in. The sorority may affiliate itself with other sororities. It may have informal social meetings at the homes of members or if it is strong it may at times use a hotel room for initiations and thus give to the girls a glimpse of the wider social life of the city which many of them crave. In other cases the sorority serves only a temporary function for the girl. One girl who had continued to grow intellectually, to attend night school and who hoped for college, found after a few years that she felt out of place in her high school sorority with its gossip social meetings. Even so, it had tided her over a difficult period.

The church club to which the girl has belonged since a child serves much the same function as the high school sorority. For a time it gives the girl stability in her social relations until she has made contacts through her work with new friends. Dramatic and athletic clubs—

the clubs where the girls are active and can exercise initiative—seem of most interest as the girls mature. Here too, as in the sorority, individual girls may experience a shifting of interest and gradually drift away from the church club. One girl who was so interested in athletics in middle adolescence that she wanted to play basket ball every night in the week found this interest decreasing as she advanced into business life; she finally took little interest in her church athletic club.

As the girl becomes accustomed to work she discovers new methods of finding friends. The more speedily the girl can be inducted into these new contacts the more sure will be her adjustment to work. The usual story is one of eventual loss of contact with childhood and school friends. Unless the girl has established new contacts she may find herself very much alone, even in the city in which she has spent her entire life.

The office group itself offers some possibilities for friendship, except in those cases where the girl has no fellow-employees. But there are many hindrances to these friendships. Sometimes the girl finds no congenial friend; other girls may be older or younger or there may be a difference in education which acts as a barrier. In larger offices where there are sufficient girls for cliques or even organized clubs to form, the newcomer may find herself excluded and unless she breaks through the barrier she makes no friends. Such a situation is very bad, for the excluded girl feels herself unwanted and withdraws, making no effort to establish contacts.

Many of the girls interviewed at the Y. W. C. A. activity centers had joined classes or clubs there in order to meet girls. Rarely, however, among the girls talked with, did these friendships carry over into extra-Y. W. C. A. activities. Sometimes the girls worked many blocks apart and never saw each other except at

the club meetings. Sometimes no one in the club lived in the same part of the city with a given girl.

Rooming houses and clubs offer some opportunities for girls living away from home. Social life in residences is usually unorganized and the girl must depend upon her own efforts in building up friendships.

Interests in common activities are important. The girls at the Camp Gray business girls' conference in 1927 who answered the questionnaire gave interest in dancing, music, shows, in sports, and in clubs as the three major types of interest holding them to their girl friends. (See Table XXV). Out of 69 girls, 7 stated they had no girl chum, 8 did not reply to the question, and 54 stated they had chums.

TABLE XXV

SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO THE QUESTION: WHAT ACTIVITIES OR INTERESTS HOLD YOU AND YOUR GIRL CHUM TOGETHER?

Camp Gray Conference, 1927		
	Number	Percentage of girls
Dances, music, shows.....	27	50.0
Sports.....	24	44.4
Clubs.....	19	35.2
Education, reading, etc....	9	16.6
Church work.....	9	16.6
Mutual friends.....	6	11.1
Ideas, same point of view..	6	11.1
Work.....	5	9.3
Boy friends.....	2	3.7
"Interested in the same things".....	11	20.4
Miscellaneous replies.....	11	20.4
Number of activities mentioned.....	129	
Number of girls replying...	54*	

*Out of 69 girls, 7 specified they had no girl chum.

Factors that hinder or cause the disintegration of friendships are important. Moving from one community to another in a city causes almost as great a break

in church and neighborhood friendships as moving from one town to another. Sometimes a family of one nationality background moves into a community of another national complexion with a resulting attitude of distrust and no effort to make friends. The changing interests as a girl develops have already been mentioned; the girl's own growth demands that she make new contacts and establish new friendships. The matter of a college education was found to be a hindrance in cases in which the girl with a college background found herself working or living in a group with a different background. Not only did she herself feel the difference but the non-college girls were conscious of the fact that this one girl had something which they admired and desired but did not have. One girl attempted to solve this difficulty by not telling girls in the club where she lived that she had a college degree. Differences in age may make it impossible for the older girl to find congenial friends in a girls' club where the girls are young. The older girl cannot make a confidante of a girl less experienced than herself. Engagements and marriage disrupt close friendships and the unmarried girl may come to feel that she is unwanted among her married friends.

Of immense importance is the girl's personality. Too great aggressiveness, too much reserve, a feeling of inferiority to other girls, all hinder the making of friendships.

The following excerpts from interviews and life histories are pertinent.

Case 7.—S., in the two months that she has lived in Chicago, has not found a chum. At her place of work the girls are in cliques and she never sees any of them outside of working hours. She has joined a Y. W. C. A. club but does not see these girls at other times than when the club meets. She has also sought friends by moving to a club house. Here her roommate, whom she did not previously know, is engaged and has little time for girl friends.

(This girl is reserved and apparently not aggressive in making contacts, although she has allied herself with organizations where she

meets people. She is attractive, has had two years of college work, has travelled, and receives more than the average salary. Her lack of friends makes her feel unsettled.)

Case 8.—Y. has few girl friends of her own age. She came to Chicago several years ago with her family and holds a very good office position. She chums with her younger sister and belongs to a church bridge club, which is arbitrarily made up of all girls living in a certain area. No friendships have developed from this club. At the office the girls were already formed into groups when she met them and many of them live in other parts of the city. She also discovered, when different girls invited her to their homes, that their homes were better furnished than her home was; consequently she has discouraged friends whom she would have to invite to her home, because her family does not have oriental rugs or a grand piano. In the town from which she came her home was as well furnished as the homes of her friends and she feels keenly the present difference between her home and those of other girls.

Case 9.—Q. recently moved to Chicago from another city. She lived at home until a stepfather entered the family circle, when she left to stay at a girls' club, still, however, seeing her mother regularly. She chummed with her sister until the sister married. She felt her sister's marriage very deeply and although she sees her sister often she does not have the same close relationship with her. She becomes very depressed at times because an operation has left her with a marked physical deficiency which threatens to interfere with some of her most ardent plans for the future. At the club house the girls are young and immature. She plays the ukelele for them and goes to the movies with them occasionally; she must have people around her to "take her mind off herself." Nevertheless, she has found no friend in whom she can confide, and becomes morose and restless.

Case 10.—P. has lived in the city only a short time, but has already found a chum in one girl who works in her office. Through this girl she met other girls, but she does not care for a large circle of friends, as there is too much jealousy in a group of girls.

This girl, although attractive and well-dressed, is not popular among other girls in the Y. W. C. A. club to which she belongs. She sings, draws, and writes but is overly-aggressive and antagonizes her companions. The same difficulty has prevented friendships from developing with the girls in the office where she works.

Case 11.—R., whose home is at a distance, has made friends at the girls' club where she lives. They spend much of their time "frolic-ing" around the house. She has not sought friendships at the office where she works because the girls go to public dance halls, which she regards as wrong.

Case 12.—T. is twenty-six years old. Most of her old friends in the suburb where her parents live are married and have formed their own group, and she feels that the younger unmarried girls do not care to have her with them. At present she is rooming in the city, where she works, but the two other girls at her rooming house are engaged and she has little companionship from them. She believes that loneliness is one of the greatest problems of the business girl.

Case 13.—N. has never confined her friendship to one chum. She works in a city twelve miles from her home, commuting in the summer and living at the Y. W. C. A. residence in the winter. She has lost touch with her school friends and her friends now are girls met at the Y. W. C. A. residence. The girls dance and play bridge or "just fool around."

Case 14.—Q., after graduating from college, worked in an office in the town where she had attended high school. She now has no real chums in this town, but a circle of friends whom she had known in high school, or met through them or at church.

Case 15.—X. came to Chicago with her girl chum from a small town in Michigan. In the three years they have been in Chicago they have always lived together, in apartments, rooming houses, and finally at a girls' club.

Case 16.—U. is shy about meeting people, due, she believes, to the fact that she has always stayed at home much of her free time to help her mother. Now, after working for three years, she finds herself without any girl friends. The ones she knew in high school have moved from the neighborhood and she has lost her contacts with them. She first came to the Y. W. C. A. with a girl who works in the same office with her, and has joined a club.

None of the girls, however, live in her section of the city, and she does not see them except at club meetings.

Case 17.—V. belonged to a little clique of girls when in high school but after one year in college and several years of work has lost track of them. She has, however, joined a sorority which originated in high school but to which she did not belong while she was in school. The other girls in it are also business girls. She has also joined clubs and classes at the Y. W. C. A. and made friends there. She often eats lunch with the girls from the Y. W. C. A., but does not see them in the evenings, aside from club meetings.

Case 18.—L. has friends among the girls in the office where she formerly worked and belongs to a social club from the high school where she was graduated three years before. Recently this club has organized into a sorority. She has also joined a business girls' club at the Y. W. C. A.

She is not, however, entirely happy in her club relationships, as she "takes herself too seriously" and feels out of place.

Case 19.—W. is very conscious of her immigrant background and does not feel confident about the use of English words. She finds the girls where she works uncongenial. At the girls' club where she lives she is too shy to make friendly approaches to the other girls, fearing that they will think her forward.

"I AM IN THE MARKET FOR A HUSBAND
AND BABIES"

Not all girls state their ultimate interests as explicitly as did the girl who wrote the above sentence, but most girls will

TABLE XXVI

SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO THE QUESTION: DO YOU LOOK FORWARD TO BEING MARRIED?

	Camp Gray Conference, 1927		College girls	
	Number	Percentage of girls	Number	Percentage of girls
"Yes".....	49	79.0	49	72.1
"Yes" with various stipulations, e. g., "if I meet my ideal", "not before 35 or 40", "eventually", "yes, but not soon," etc.....	4	6.5	9	13.2
"No".....	3	4.8	3	4.4
Rather vague replies, suggesting negative attitude, as "Not at present," "Not seriously," "Not thinking about it yet," etc.....	4	6.5	4	5.9
Uncertain, does not know.....	2	3.2	3	4.4
Number of girls replying.....	62	100.0	68	100.0

admit frankly that they hope and expect to marry.

The questionnaire material shows clearly the definiteness of this interest in men and marriage. In response to the direct question, "Do you look forward to being married?" 79 per cent of one group of business girls gave a specific "yes" and 6.5 per cent more gave "yes" with some stipulation, such as "if I meet my ideal," or "eventually".

Of a group of girls in a woman's college, 72.1 per cent gave "yes" for an answer, and 13.2 per cent more gave "yes" with some stipulation. (Table XXVI.)

A question intended to secure some statement of the girl's wishes or plans for her future was phrased, "What would you like to be doing when you are thirty-five years old?" (Table XVI.) This question has no suggestion as to what would be an appropriate reply. Of a group of business girls 81.8 per cent stated that at thirty-five they wanted to be married, have homes of their own, have children, and so forth. An equal percentage of college girls gave the same answer. Nor is it altogether a question of what the girl wants at thirty-five. In reply to the question, "Do you feel that you lack anything which would make you really happy?" (Table XI) 17.7 per cent of a group of business girls stated that they lacked men friends, marriage, love.

Almost the same percentage of a group of college girls gave the same reply. Only lack of education or of some personality trait had a higher percentage in the business girls' group.

With this definitely stated interest in men and marriage it is significant to know what progress the girl is making toward achieving a husband. In response to a definite question 56 per cent of the same group of business girls who were so eager to be married at thirty-five stated they had at some time been seriously interested in men friends.¹ This indicates that many girls desiring to be married have never, for some reason or other, had the preliminary friendship from which marriage usually results. Among college girls, a slightly higher proportion, 69 per cent, had had serious friendships (Table XXVII). This gap between desire and fulfillment is not, then, confined to business girls.

The customary procedure through which marriage is achieved in this country is through a process of "dating", during which the young people have an opportunity to try out together various forms of amusement, to talk over ideals and plans, and to meet each other's fam-

1. Since there exists no good dictionary word to express what the young girl of today means when she speaks of her "man friend" or "boy friend," these terms have been adopted and are used in this discussion.

TABLE XXVII
SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO THE QUESTION: HAVE YOU EVER BEEN SERIOUSLY INTERESTED IN MEN FRIENDS?

	Camp Gray Conference, 1927-28		College girls	
	Number of girls	Percentage of girls	Number of girls	Percentage of girls
"Yes".....	56	56.0	49	69.0
"No".....	44	44.0	22	31.0
Number of girls replying.....	100	100.0	71	100.0

ily and friends. The friendship proves a harmonious one, becomes emotionalized, a proposal and marriage normally follow; or the friendship is only slightly exhilarating and after a time the couple drifts apart to repeat the process with other partners; or at any time the friendship may prove highly inharmonious and break off abruptly. Nevertheless, the method involved is one of having dates and a girl's opportunities for developing serious friendships may be gauged roughly by the number of dates she has and the number of men with whom she dates during any one period. During the first half of the summer, out of 110 business girls, 72 stated they had had dates. Many of the remainder of the group were silent and left the question blank—an indication of no dates (Table XXVIII). This means that fully a third of the girls during the best dating season of the year—the season of outdoor sports, of vacations, of general restlessness—had not

been sufficiently attractive to any young men to secure dates. Practically the same proportion of women from a woman's college were without dates during their summer vacation.

Of the business girls who were dating, by far the greater number were having one or two dates per week, with one to three different men. The college girls tended to have a somewhat wider variety of men friends. On the whole, however, business girls compared very favorably with college girls during the summer months in the matter of dates. (Table XXIX.)

In this connection the criticism against the Y. W. C. A. might be noted, that it usually provides only contacts with girls and by absorbing the girl's time hinders contacts with men. The girls who furnished the information summarized here represent a number of towns and cities. They seem perfectly normal in their interest in men and marriage and except

TABLE XXVIII

SUMMARY OF ANSWERS TO THE QUESTION: HOW OFTEN HAD YOU DATES?

	Camp Gray Conference, 1927-28		College girls	
	Number of girls	Percentage of girls	Number of girls	Percentage of girls
Less than one per week.....	19	26.4	4	7.4
One date per week.....	12	16.7	3	5.6
One or two per week.....	3	4.1	6	11.1
Two per week.....	17	23.6	2	3.7
Two or three per week.....	6	8.2	5	9.3
Three per week.....	9	12.5	9	16.7
Three or four per week.....			4	7.4
Four per week.....	4	5.6		
Four or five per week.....				
Five per week.....	1	1.4	1	1.9
Five or six per week.....				
Six per week.....				
Six or seven per week.....				
Seven per week.....	1	1.4	8	14.8
"Off and on," "Seldom," "Not very often," "Occasionally," etc.....			12	22.2
Number of girls replying.....	72	99.9	54	100.1

for a small group are having social contacts with young men.

With reference to the "serious friendships" which more than half of both business and college girls asserted they had had, an interesting problem is what became of these friendships. Among the business girls there were sixty serious friendships, a few girls having had two or three. Twenty-eight or 47 per cent had resulted in engagements or were still serious. Thirty-two or 53 per cent had ended. There is apparently less than an even chance that a given serious friendship will continue or turn into an engagement. This means that girls need wide, varied and continued contacts with men in the exploratory process of finding "the man." The reasons for the non-continuance of the friendships vary from girl to girl. The most frequent reasons given by the girls were: the man did not correspond to the girl's ideal; separation led to dying of the friendship; they drifted apart; or they "broke up." Among

the college girls there were fewer engagements (due perhaps to the fact that the girls are still in college) but a somewhat higher percentage of continuing friendships. (Table XXX.)

"MET A FELLOW AT A DANCE"

How to meet young men is a vital problem for many girls. Just as the girl loses her contacts with girl friends after she leaves high school, so she often loses contacts with the boys she knew in school. In lieu of any organized method, she makes use of the same techniques for meeting men which she uses in making girl friends—she goes where men are to be found and picks up an acquaintance with the ones who appeal to her. This is a method not at all condemned when applied to other girls—in fact, this ability to make acquaintances informally with girls is regarded as friendliness, meeting a stranger half way, social ease. Applied to men it has often been disapproved. Nevertheless many young business girls

TABLE XXIX

SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO THE QUESTION: HOW MANY MEN HAVE YOU DATED WITH THIS SUMMER?

	Camp Gray Conference, 1927-28		College girls	
	Number of girls	Percentage of girls	Number of girls	Percentage of girls
None.....	15	16.1	2	3.6
One man.....	36	38.7	17	30.4
Two men.....	9	9.7	8	14.3
Three men.....	14	15.1	9	16.1
Four men.....	8	8.6	6	10.7
Five men.....	7	7.5	6	10.7
Six men.....			2	3.6
Seven men.....			1	1.8
Eight men.....			2	3.6
Nine men.....				
Ten men.....	1	1.1	1	1.8
Eleven men.....			1	1.8
Twelve men.....			1	1.8
"A few," "several".....	3	3.2		
Number of girls replying.....	93	100.0	56	100.2

of perfectly good standards and conduct use it.

The following list gives the ways in which business girls met young men and the progress of the friendships. Some of these girls belong to the Y. W. C. A.; some do not (there seemed no essential difference between the two groups); most of them are Chicago girls and the list may be thought of as reflecting urban conditions. The statements in quotations are in the words of the girl who related the incidents.

1. A flirted with a man on the bathing beach. This man became "fresh" and she has never again tried flirting with strange men.

2. B went with a man from the office and later discovered he was married. She now does not seek friendships with business acquaintances.

3. C met a college man who lived in the same apartment house. The man and his friends sought acquaintance with C and her friends (the men and the girls had apartments in the same building). From the group thus formed C and one man paired off, and later became engaged.

4. D met the cousin of the boy who went with her girl friend. They went together for a time but finally stopped because the boy had to work in the evening. She was very much disappointed and for a time had no boy friend. At a Y. M. C. A. dance she found herself left out of the dances and in desperation winked at a boy, who then danced with her. This boy said he had been too shy to ask a girl to dance until he received her encouraging wink.

TABLE XXX

SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO THE QUESTION: WHAT HAPPENED TO THE FRIENDSHIPS (WITH MEN)?

	Camp Gray Conference, 1927-28		College girls	
	Number of girls	Percentage of girls	Number of girls	Percentage of girls
Engaged, still in love, still serious.....	10	5
Still friends.....	18	33
Total friendships continuing.....	28	46.7	38	49.3
Man was not the girl's ideal, she could not trust him, he was "below" her, etc.....	6	4
They were separated and friendship died.....	5	4
Drifted apart, friendship faded away, "just dropped".....	4	7
"Broke up," no reason stated.....	4
Girl changed her mind.....	2
Girl became bored, tired of the man.....	2	3
They decided they would not be happy together, were not suited to each other, etc.....	2	1
Lack of understanding.....	1	3
Man cannot hold a job.....	1
Quarrels.....	2
Became too serious and girl broke it up.....	1	4
Man doesn't care, man married someone else..	2	2
Man already married.....	1
"Someone else came along".....	1
Parents disapproved.....	1	1
Girl too young.....	2
Family obligations of the man.....	1
Man died.....	1	1
Decided to stop going together for five years...	1
Never knew what happened.....	1
Total friendships discontinued*.....	32	53.3	39	50.7

*In a few cases one girl gave reasons why two or more friendships had broken up.

They discovered a mutual interest in music, the boy was introduced to her family, met the family approval, and a good friendship developed.

5. E has contacts with a group of young people from a church club. She regards the boys of her own age as "silly" and would like a man a little older. She goes occasionally with an older man from the office who takes her to dinner and theatres. She is not in love with him and would like a boy friend but does not know how to meet one.

6. F went with a boy while in high school but her father objected and the friendship ended when she broke a date. She has recently met a man through her office who wishes to learn to play bridge. She thinks something may develop from this.

7. In five months' time, G went with ten or twelve men from the place where she works. One man in the late twenties appealed to her and she would have married him but her mother objected. He left town and she is now not interested in men, but would like to meet a man who lives near and who resembles the one in whom she was interested.

8. H has a great many men friends, whom she meets at work, through friends, at Y. W. C. A. dances, in addition to ones known in high school. She went with ten men in two months' time. She also has one friend who is "serious." He is, however, of a different religious faith, and she is not sure their beliefs can be harmonized.

9. T would like a boy friend, as she has none and her family expects her to marry young. The men whom she meets at a mixed church club do not interest her. She goes occasionally to public dance halls but will not permit any of the men she meets there to take her home.

10. J went with a neighbor-boy for three years. She thought him silly and was embarrassed at parties because he drank too much and went out on the floor alone to dance. While skating at the park she and her sister met a young man who helped them when they fell down. He walked home with them and asked for her phone number, which she gave him. (She thought she would "take a chance and give it to him.") She went with him a while but thought him silly. Then at a public dance hall she met another young man who danced with her and asked for her phone number. They have been going together steadily and expect to be married.

11. "K was introduced to a fellow at a dance given by her brother's lodge. After several dates, she lost interest in him."

12. L met a man at her brother's funeral, without an introduction. After a courtship of two years, they were married.

13. "M is from Ireland and meets many fellows from the old country at Irish dances. She has also met men on motor coaches—she knew they were from Ireland and started conversations. Great friendships have developed.

She operates a switchboard and got into a conversation with a man who called up her boss. This man took her to lunch one day but she did not like him."

14. "N has picked up fellows on elevated trains, but after several dates they ask for no more. She bumped into a fellow while coming out of a store. He followed her home, picked up an acquaintanceship, and they had several dates, after which she lost interest. She picked up an acquaintance with the conductor of a motor coach and went out with him once; he did not ask for another date. She also had a few dates with a man who gave her a lift to work in his car, and with several fellows met at public dances, but the friendships did not last long."

15. "O, after working in an office for two months, married her boss."

16. "P met a fellow at church and went with him steadily for a year; they went to all the church affairs together. She started a conversation in the yard with the nephew of a neighbor. They went together for eighteen months and were engaged, then broke up. Through a motor coach conductor whom she knew she met other men employed on the coaches; with one she went for a year and with another for a year and a half. She danced with one man a number of times at a public dance hall, who after walking home with her several times asked for a date. She met a fellow through her girl friend's boy friend and has had several dates." (This girl, who is twenty, usually has some favorite friend and in addition several others with whom she goes less regularly. The favorite changes on an average of about once a year.)

17. In her home town, Q had "lots of boy friends, about thirty in all." She never went with one longer than a year and was never in love. In Chicago where she now works she has met men only at the Y. W. C. A. dances. Some of them have taken her to the theatre but she does not like them—they do not tell her about themselves and she does not care simply to be taken to the theatre and returned home—she likes to know people.

18. R goes with boys she knew in high school, but not regularly with any one. She does not want to marry for some time because there are so many other things she wants to do first.

Several things may be noted from the foregoing. The home plays a conspicuously small part in providing the young city business girl with men friends. The public dance hall is an important way to meet young men; the Y. W. C. A. dance is also important. Many girls make no effort to establish friendships at work (perhaps because in many cases the men are older, married, or of a different so-

cial class). Many girls follow very informal methods of meeting men.

The number of friendships which fade out after a few dates is noteworthy. The process is purely one of trial and error and after a few dates which serve to bring out differences in religion, interests, or moral standards, a large proportion of the friendships are discontinued and the girl is again on the lookout for a man friend. On the other hand some very good friendships have resulted and friendships cannot be condemned wholesale because the initial social contact was made in some highly informal manner. Until some more efficient method is devised for bringing together young women and men in cities under supervised conditions, it must be expected that they will use whatever means they can to find friends of the opposite sex.

"WHAT'S A KISS!"

Of twenty-three girls in the group interviewed, with whom the question of petting (to use the phrase commonly accepted by young people) was raised, ten petted and thirteen did not, although four of these said they formerly had petted. The attitudes on the matter of love-making with men friends ranged all the way from the girl who became highly emotional at the mere mention and said, "I won't stand for it," to the girl who said, "If I went out with a fellow several times and he didn't try to kiss me I'd think there was something wrong with me and naturally think that he didn't like me." Without exception the girls limited the word "petting" to mean kissing, and often thought of it merely as a good-night kiss after a date. Among those who petted the following expressions were typical:

1. "Petting, which I would describe as kissing—that being the limit of my experience—depends on the circumstances and the individuals. If a couple goes together for quite a while and they think a good deal of each other it is only natural. This business, how-

ever, of kissing every Tom, Dick and Harry is absolutely out. No girl with any self-respect or high ideals will do it. Again, one has to know the man. I absolutely do not believe that petting should be construed to mean or be carried any further than kissing."

2. "In this day and age, I believe that really one cannot get along without petting to a certain extent. I like to be loved I like to be kissed. I do believe, however, in putting a limit on petting. I stop at a kiss. And then I don't kiss everyone. Petting is all right if both parties concerned have self-control and if it can be stopped at a point before intimacies begin. I'm perfectly willing to kiss a man 'good night' if he has shown me a good time and I like him. I don't go out with anyone I don't like. To be frank, I feel rather hurt if any one of the three men I go out with doesn't kiss me. I think his interest is waning."

3. "I do not believe a girl should pet with every man she goes out with. That is, I don't believe a girl should kiss and neck with every man that takes her to a movie, dance or party. But if he appeals to her and she thinks she would like him to take her seriously and they have been going with each other a long time, then I think it all right."

4. "I do not believe in petting, that is, with every fellow you go out with. But if you go out with only one man and really love him, then it is all right."

5. "Love-making with a steady friend is all right. Sometimes I pet. The men never ask for other dates so I do not know whether it is because I pet or don't pet."

6. B pets sometimes—"what's a kiss!" But one time she and a man friend were with another couple and someone turned off the lights. She thought she would not say anything and be called a "pill." But the man "let his hands drift" and she objected. Since then he has treated her as she wishes.

7. E has had a succession of steady men friends, each of whom she expected to marry at the time she went with him. She says "you usually look upon the man you go with steadily as a prospective husband and after you know him well you naturally expect to pet some. Then you are thrown with company that does it and you can't just sit around like a 'touch-me-not'."

Girls who do not pet react in various ways to the attempts of their men friends to make love to them. One girl left a dance floor because a man tried to pet; another says she would drop a man who offered to, although she used to think nothing of kissing a boy; another girl becomes both angry and afraid and will

not accept a second date from a man who tries to pet; another is "absolutely disgusted" at the mention of it; another says she "cannot stand pawing." However commendable it may be for girls not to become too slack in their conduct toward miscellaneous acquired men friends, there is in some of these phrases the suggestion of an attitude too highly emotionalized to be for the girl's own good. Not every young man in this day who offers to kiss a girl is a scoundrel and the girl who regards him as such is building up within herself an attitude of antagonism which shuts her away from men. It seems very certain that some of the girls who were very sure that their refusal to pet had caused men not to ask for a second date overlooked the fact that the manner of their refusals was such as to make the men feel that the girls regarded them as little short of villains. Another group of the non-petters are fully as consistent in their attitude against this activity but do not make an issue of it. One very attractive girl who had had many boy friends did not pet, beyond an occasional good-night kiss. She "never petted the way she had seen some girls in cars do." When asked how she controlled a situation where petting seemed imminent, she laughed and said she told the man, "nothing doing." There was nothing in her manner to indicate that she made the man feel "cheap." Refusal to pet had not caused any lessening of her dates. Another girl made fun of men who tried to pet, while another tried to evade the situation by suggesting things to do when she saw signs of petting.

There is evident here considerable confusion in the minds of these girls, both as to the attitude to take toward petting and how to control a situation in which a man offers to make love. Some girls felt that it was necessary to pet in order to have

dates; others felt that it had nothing to do with the matter of dates.²

Although some of these girls had had men propose greater intimacies, it seemed rather evident from their statements that none of them had indulged in such intimacies. In view of the difficulty in getting at this matter directly, several indirect approaches were made.

Published studies of girls who come before courts or are sent to institutions due to sexual delinquency were surveyed. These studies corroborate each other in the following facts: Vocationally, these girls come largely from domestic service or factories; only occasionally have they had high school education; they are usually into trouble and in the hands of agencies before they are twenty years old.³ In other words they come from a very different group than the business girls' group. Apparently flagrant sexual delinquency or promiscuity calling for official attention is rare in the business girls' group.

With regard to less flagrant violations of sexual conventions there is little to offer except general impressions.

The statement has already been made that the Y. W. C. A. appeals to conservative girls. It is doubtful whether a girl whose moral standards permitted her to indulge in sexual irregularities would center her activities around the Y. W. C. A. In Chicago the radical and non-conforming groups are concentrated in certain parts of the city, chiefly in the rooming house areas which extend like three long fingers from the business center or "loop". A study of one of the better rooming house areas in Chicago revealed that the roomers were chiefly

2. For an excellent discussion of problems of sex, see Grace L. Elliott and Harry Bone, *The Sex Life of Youth*.

3. See M. R. Fernald, *A Study of Women Delinquents in New York*. F. Q. Holsopple, *Social Non-conformity: an analysis of 420 cases of delinquent girls and women*. A. S. Starr, "An Analytical Study of the Intelligence of a Group of Adolescent Delinquent Girls," *Psychological Clinic*, (1922), 143-58. A. Hewes, "A Study of Delinquent Girls at Sleighton Farm," *J. Crim. Law and Crimin.*, (1925), 598-619.

clerical workers, that 52 per cent were single men, 10 per cent single women, and 38 per cent married, "supposedly with benefit of clergy, though actually 60 per cent of these couples are living together unmarried."⁴ It is among the young women of these areas, detached from family and church ties, associating with young people from many different cultural backgrounds, growing restless,

4. Harvey W. Zorbaugh, "The Dweller in Furnished Rooms: An Urban Type," *Papers and Proceedings of the Twentieth Annual Meeting of the American Sociological Society*, vol. XXXII of the *American Journal of Sociology*, No. 1, Part 2, (July, 1926), 83-89. Also, Harvey W. Zorbaugh, *The Gold Coast and the Slum*, chapter IV, "The World of Furnished Rooms."

and seeking satisfactions where they can find them, that the non-conformers are found. A detailed study of the locations of the homes of Y. W. C. A. girls would reveal whether the Y. W. C. A. had in its membership many girls from these areas. The fact that most of the Y. W. C. A. girls live at home suggests that they probably are from other communities, where families rather than roomers live.

From the data at hand it is impossible to determine whether the Y. W. C. A. girls or the non-conformers are most typical of business girls in general.

Recreational Interests

"TRAVEL ALL OVER THE WORLD"

The business girls studied have a decided interest in new and thrilling experiences, but there is evidence that this interest is rather evanescent and that the girl does not take many practical steps to satisfy her craving.

On every side is evident a great interest in travel, occasionally travel with an educational slant, but for the most part travel with a romantic and adventurous flavor.

"Travel" was the most commonly checked item on the check list of interests—89.4 per cent of the girls wanted to travel (Table VII). Of one group of 67 girls 52 or 80 per cent stated they would travel if they had a year's vacation on pay. Of another group of 41 girls, 32 or 78 per cent stated they would travel. In both cases travel far out-ranked any other activity (Table XII).

Of a group of 65 girls, 23 or 35 per cent stated they would travel if they inherited \$1,000. This was the most popular choice, although education and saving ranked high. Of another group of 41 girls, 18 or 44 per cent chose travel as the way in which \$1,000 would be spent (Table XIII).

Of 60 girls, 17 or 30 per cent stated they day dreamed about travel, wider contacts, adventure. Day dreams of home and marriage ranked higher and day dreams of professional advancement tied with day dreams of travel. Of 34 girls, 13 or 38 per cent day dreamed of travel. Again only day dreams of home and marriage ranked higher (Table XIV).

From these replies it is evident that there is a marked interest in travel and

new experiences. The exact wording of replies brings the nature of the interest out more clearly than the mere figures. These are typical replies: "travel all over the world;" "travel—that would be ideal;" "go abroad;" "take a trip around the world;" "travel, as far and as long as the money would hold out, and perhaps farther and longer yet, on my own hook;" "live a wonderfully free life, travel some, rest a lot, and try to save some;" "travel, particularly in foreign countries;" "travel through foreign countries, visit the various Y. W. C. A.'s in the world, and take pictures;" "see the world;" "start for the South Sea Islands." Other girls would see America and some state "travel" without designating a specific goal.

The girls' interest in travel is somewhat of the nature of a vague wish. The questions to which it came as a response are of the fairy wish type—impossible things which would be glorious if they could happen and to which the girl responded in kind—by wishing for remote but wonderful things. Questions which tapped the girl's real needs and practical wishes brought no hint of desire for travel. When asked what they lacked to make them really happy, out of 79 girls not one mentioned travel (Table XI). And in response to the question "What do you want that you cannot afford?" only thirteen girls out of a group of fifty mentioned travel. Moreover, only 41 girls or 11.8 per cent out of the 349 who responded to the check list said that they were interested in living away from home; and of a smaller number of girls, mostly from small cities, who responded to the question about living in a larger

city, only 25.6 per cent evinced any interest in cities (See Table VII). Leaving the restriction of home and living in large cities are two of the simplest and most easily attained ways of securing excitement, new experiences, wider contacts. Nor are vacations widely utilized for travel, unless vacations spent at camps and Y. W. C. A. conferences are placed in the class of travel, as they indeed are for many young girls. Of 110 ways in which 67 girls had spent vacations, 20 recent vacations were spent at camps, 23 at conference, 18 at summer resorts, 18 in travel and seeing "new things". On the other hand 21 recent vacations had been spent at home or with relatives, five in visiting, and four in such recreations as hiking. Of 55 girls who replied to the question concerning with whom vacations were spent, 33 stated

with parents or relatives, 12 with friends and 21 specifically stated with girl friends.

Certain girls "see the world" by securing work first in one city, then in another. Among the girls interviewed, only one such mobile girl was discovered—a stenographer who, with her chum, spent eight months working her way to California, where she spent several years before her return to the middle west. The employment bureau records reveal a greater amount of mobility; a random leafing through these records produces the following:

1. A girl, now twenty-six years old, worked in New York City as a secretary for six years. When the firm for which she worked failed, she went to Kansas City, Missouri, where she worked for one year, then returned to New York City for six months, after which she went to Chicago, where she secured secretarial work.

TABLE XXXI

SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO THE QUESTION: HOW AND WITH WHOM DO YOU USUALLY SPEND VACATIONS?

CAMP GRAY CONFERENCE, 1927

HOW VACATIONS ARE SPENT		
	Number of girls	Percentage of girls
At conferences.....	23	34.3
At home or with relatives.....	21	31.3
At camps.....	20	29.9
Summer resorts, summer cottages, etc.....	18	26.9
Travelling, seeing "new things".....	18	26.9
"Visiting".....	5	7.5
In recreation, hikes, etc.....	4	6.0
"Each vacation in a different way".....	1	1.5
Number of replies.....	110	
Number of girls replying.....	67	
WITH WHOM VACATIONS ARE SPENT		
	Number of girls	Percentage of girls
With parents or relatives.....	33	60.0
With girl friends.....	21	38.2
Friends.....	12	21.8
Club girls.....	2	3.6
Young people.....	1	1.8
Number of replies.....	69	
Number of girls replying*.....	55	

*A number of girls gave double replies to this question.

2. A girl of twenty-five has a record which includes four years of work in Columbus, Ohio, ten months in Florida, four months in Columbus, Ohio, followed by a position in Chicago.

3. Another girl of twenty-six has a record of two years of secretarial work in Japan, a year in New York City, followed by work in Chicago.

4. A secretary of thirty has worked during ten years' time in Washington, D. C., San Francisco, Philadelphia, and Chicago.

5. New York City, San Antonio, and Chicago comprise the location of the three positions held by one girl during a period of four years.

Many of these girls state as their reason for leaving one city and travelling across the continent that they wish to

live in another part of the country. The return trip is often made in order again to be with family or friends. One very restless girl, whose home was in Oregon, attended school in the east, after her graduation worked in Chicago for several years, then returned home for a short time, after which she spent a summer working in Yellowstone Park. In the fall she was again in Chicago but during the winter went to California to assist in some special work for her firm. In the spring she was again in Chicago for a few months, after which she left for New York City.

TABLE XXXII

SUMMARY OF ANSWERS TO THE QUESTION: WHAT HOBBIES DO YOU HAVE?

	Camp Gray Conference, 1927		College girls	
	Number of girls	Percentage of girls	Number of girls	Percentage of girls
Athletics.....	29	79.6	28	76.8
Dancing.....	11		13	
Horseback riding.....	5		4	
Driving a car.....	2		4	
Walking, hikes.....			3	
Boating.....			2	
Camping.....			2	
Reading.....	19	66.1	27	96.0
Music.....	9		13	
Art, handicraft.....	5		10	
Dramatics.....	2		14	
Studying.....	2		
Writing.....	2		3	
Architecture, interior decoration.....			3	
Sewing, embroidery.....	5		6	
Collecting.....	6		5	
Clubs, lodge.....	5			
Playing cards.....	2		2	
Nature study.....	2			
Kodakery.....	1			
Travel.....			6	
Clothes.....			4	
Housework.....			2	
Miscellaneous.....	9		10	
Total number of hobbies.....	116		161	
Number of girls with hobbies.....	59		73	
Girls specifying they had no hobbies.....	2		1	

ATHLETICS, ART AND READING

In naming their hobbies on the questionnaire given out at the Camp Gray Conference in 1927, girls interpreted the meaning of hobbies freely and named many activities not usually thought of as hobbies. There were 116 hobbies for 59 girls, an average of two for each girl. Eighty per cent of the girls mentioned some very active recreation as a hobby, such as athletics, boating, dancing. (See Table XXXII.) Thirty-nine per cent said study, reading or writing was a hobby, while 27 per cent mentioned some form of art, music or dramatics. In addition to these three main groups, there were of course many scattered interests.

Another question throwing light on

recreational interests was the question, "What activities or interests hold you and your girl chum together?" Here, dances, music, shows, rank first; sports second; clubs third; with educational classes and reading, and church work as poor fourth and fifth. (See Table XXV.)

The check list (see Appendix 4) contained a list of activities to which it was known girls gave considerable of their free time. They were asked to check the things they did as often as once a week. There were only five activities that forty per cent or more girls did as often as once a week—spending an evening at home, attending church service, reading several hours, helping their mothers at home, and attending girls' clubs. The number of girls who go to the movies or

TABLE XXXIII

ACTIVITIES OF BUSINESS GIRLS

(Things done at *least once a week* during some season of the year by young business girls, in Y. W. C. A. clubs in Chicago and Janesville and girls at Forest Beach Camp and Camp Gray Business Girls' Conference, 1928.)

Activity	Number of girls checking each activity	Percentage of girls checking each activity
Spend evening at home.....	115	73.2
Church service.....	86	54.1
Read several hours.....	81	51.6
Help mother at home several hours.....	72	45.9
Girls clubs.....	63	40.1
Visit friends.....	60	38.2
Go to movies with girl friends.....	54	34.4
Hikes, walks.....	54	34.4
Education classes.....	36*	32.4
Spend evening alone.....	50	31.8
Go to movies with men friends.....	50	31.8
Go automobile riding with men friends.....	46	29.3
Sports with girl friends.....	46	29.3
Go automobile riding with family.....	37	23.5
Sew several hours.....	36	22.9
Theatre.....	35	22.3
Dancing.....	31	19.8
Play bridge.....	31	19.8
Go automobile riding with girl friends.....	25	15.9
Sports with men friends.....	20	12.7
Go to movies with family.....	12	7.7
Parties.....	11	7.0
Mixed clubs.....	8	5.1
Church parties.....	5	3.2
Total number of girls.....	157	

*Out of a total of 111 girls.

indulge in sports once a week with girl friends is considerably greater than those who do these same two things with men friends. Automobile riding once a week with men friends, however, is of more common occurrence than riding with either family or girl friends. Only 32.4 per cent of the girls attend education classes as often as once a week. On the whole activities with girls and family take precedence over activities with men. (See Table XXXIII.)

The interest in athletics is no doubt a normal and healthful reaction to the

sedentary office work. It is probable that it represents one type of business girl. At one large Y. W. C. A. activity center, the impression was general among secretaries and girls that one group of girls joined classes in gymnasium work, another the education classes, with little overlapping between the two groups. A well rounded program would suggest that while the girl would naturally be expected to indulge most freely her personal interests in either athletics or education, she ought also be urged to give a small amount of time to the less favored activity.

CHAPTER VIII

Vocational Problems

THE GIRL AND HER JOB

Home and church are institutions which reared the girl. To each of these she has, typically, a fairly harmonious adjustment. The girl's job represents an adult adjustment. For many of the girls studied, working is still a new experience and the girl has not yet "settled down" in any permanent fashion. Her job holds a peculiar and changing place in her life. To the young girl the job is an economic necessity, a burden filling the day with which she would dispense if she could. When a group of young office girls were asked concerning things of importance in their lives, their jobs were not mentioned at all. When this omission was called to their attention and they were asked why they worked, the reply came in a chorus, "We have to." This does not mean that they are surly or rebellious about working or that they have no interest in it. It is for most, however, not a voluntary subject of interest but something into which life has shunted them and which they regard as a temporary activity. For the older girl, work acquires a new significance. She has weathered the early adjustments and knows how to fit herself into office surroundings fairly well. She faces a future in which she knows office work will be the dominant occupation. The temporary aspect of office work, which distinguishes the young girl's point of view, has gone. If she is objective she will admit, when she reaches the age of twenty-eight or thirty, that in all probability she will never marry; she knows that short of a miracle no rich relative will die and leave her wealth. It is, then,

through her work that the older girl expects to realize whatever ambition of service and status she hopes for.

While the young girl has a certain lack of interest in her job, as compared with other activities, and regards marriage, not her work, as her ultimate destiny, she is nevertheless acutely conscious of her job as a source of problems and irritation. There is some indication of this in the check list of problems. Thus one out of three girls checked "not enough advance in work" as a problem, while one out of every ten checked as problems the following: "overworked," "difficulty in finding new work," "disagreeable employer," and "disagreements with fellow workers." (See Tables VIII and IX.) It is true that this same check list shows that the girl is more concerned over matters pertaining to her personality, her social contacts, and her home life than she is over matters concerning her job. Other data indicate somewhat more attention to work problems. Thus, in the questionnaire used at Camp Gray in 1927 appeared a series of questions concerning things which had caused worry, anger, disgust, quarrels, fear. (Table XVIII.) In every case except in the matter of "disgusts," work and office situations called forth these unpleasant and disruptive emotions more often than did any other type of situation. It will be profitable to take up some specific problems concerning work.

SALARIES ARE MODERATE

A study of salaries of girls in Y. W. C. A. clubs in Chicago, of the girls who spent their vacations at the Forest Beach

camp (with few exceptions girls from Chicago or its suburbs), and girls who applied at the Chicago Y. W. C. A. for information about rooming houses (this latter group including a few girls over thirty years of age) reveals information about salaries for Chicago positions.

Of the 192 stenographers and secretaries in the above three groups (all unmarried and practically all under 30 years of age) two girls received salaries of less than \$16, five received salaries of \$40.00 or over, while the middle fifty per cent of the girls received salaries ranging from \$25 to \$33 per week.

The salaries for girls applying at two employment bureaus were also studied. In each bureau the applicants were requested to give information concerning the three positions most recently held, including minimum and maximum salary for each, and in many instances the cards contained the salaries of positions to which the bureau sent the girls. In each case the highest salary which the girl recorded for each position held was used in making the tabulations. The figures cover positions held in a variety of places, but for the most part in cities of medium or large size. Of 177 stenographic and secretarial positions listed at the Chicago Y. W. C. A. Employment Bureau, only four had yielded as maximum salary less than \$16, only three had yielded as high as \$40, while the middle fifty per cent of

the positions listed had yielded from \$20 to \$28 per week.

Of 367 stenographic and secretarial positions recorded at the Chicago Collegiate Bureau of Occupations, five had carried as maximum salary less than \$16 per week, nineteen had yielded \$40 or more, while the middle fifty per cent yielded from \$23 to \$30 per week as maximum salary.

In a study made by Beatrice Doerschuk¹ of 1541 stenographers and secretaries from all parts of the country, the range of salary was from \$13 per week to \$97.15 plus bonus and the middle fifty per cent ranged from \$27.18 to \$39.54 per week. Her study indicated that the highest salaries were paid in the middle Atlantic states, the next highest near Chicago and the lowest in the vicinity of Minneapolis. This study was not, of course, confined to girls under thirty, which would account in part for the higher range of salaries. It does represent what the secretary may look forward to and it indicates that the girls under thirty are receiving practically the same range of salaries as an unselected group, which may be interpreted to mean either that there are relatively few secre-

1. From a report read before the Conference of Deans of Women, Boston, Febr. 27, 1928, and published in the *Proceedings of the Fifth Annual Meeting of the National Association of Appointment Secretaries*, Boston University, Boston, Mass., Febr., 1928, pp. 11-17. The study was made for the Bureau of Vocational Information.

TABLE XXXIV
MEDIAN SALARIES OF GROUPS OF STENOGRAPHERS AND SECRETARIES

Y. W. C. A. group, essentially Chicago girls, unmarried, under thirty years of age.	\$27.00 per week
Maximum salaries of positions recorded at Chicago Y. W. C. A. Employment Bureau, representing a number of cities, all for girls under thirty, unmarried.	25.00 per week
Chicago Collegiate Bureau of Occupations, same conditions as above.	27.00 per week
1,541 women secretaries, all ages, in many parts of United States, studied by Miss Doerschuk.	32.28 per week
Men and women (93% women) studied by National Industrial Conference Board, 1926:	
Secretarial stenographers.	32.35 per week
Senior stenographers.	27.47 per week
Junior stenographers.	21.65 per week

TABLE XXXV

COMPARATIVE SALARIES

	Number of girls in each group	Lowest Salary	Median Salary	Highest Salary	Salary range of middle fifty per cent of the positions
CHICAGO Y. W. C. A. EMPLOYMENT BUREAU, MAXIMUM SALARIES OF POSITIONS HELD BY GIRLS, UNDER 30, UNMARRIED.					
Bookkeeping.....	24	\$15.00	\$30.00	\$50.00	\$22.00 to \$35.00
Stenographic work.....	177	14.00	25.00	46.00	20.00 to 28.00
Bookkeeping combined with other work.....	31	13.00	23.00	40.00	19.00 to 25.00
General office work.....	38	16.00	23.00	35.00	18.00 to 25.00
Clerical work.....	59	12.00	20.00	30.00	17.00 to 23.00
Typing.....	74	11.00	20.00	35.00	18.00 to 22.00
Filing.....	22	13.00	18.00	33.00	16.00 to 23.00
CHICAGO COLLEGIATE BUREAU OF OCCUPATIONS, SAME CONDITIONS AS STATED ABOVE.					
Bookkeeping.....	23	20.00	30.00	52.00	24.00 to 35.00
Bookkeeping combined with other work.....	28	15.00	30.00	40.00	24.00 to 35.00
Stenographic work.....	367	12.00	27.00	58.00	23.00 to 30.00
Typing.....	37	12.00	22.00	40.00	20.00 to 24.00
Clerical work.....	31	16.00	21.00	45.00	18.00 to 25.00
General office work.....	42	10.00	20.00	38.00	18.00 to 25.00
Filing.....	16	18.00	19.00	24.00	18.00 to 20.00
COMPOSITE FIGURES FOR ALL GIRLS STUDIED.					
Bookkeeping.....	181	13.00	24-25	52.00	22-23 to 30-31
Stenographic work.....	812	12.00	24-25	58.00	22-23 to 30-31
General Office work.....	119	9.00	20-21	38.00	18-19 to 24-25
"Mechanical operators".....	127	8.00	20-21	35.00	18-19 to 24-25
Typing.....	138	11.00	20-21	40.00	18-19 to 22-23
Clerical work.....	182	10.00	20-21	45.00	18-19 to 22-23
Filing.....	52	6.00	18-19	33.00	16-17 to 20-21
NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL CONFERENCE BOARD STUDY.					
Head bookkeepers (women).....			33.21		
Secretarial stenographers*.....			32.35		
Cashiers (women).....			31.19		
Senior stenographers*.....			27.47		
Senior clerks (women).....			24.16		
Ledger clerks (women).....			22.88		
Labor-saving machine operators (women).....			21.82		
Junior stenographers*.....			21.65		
Switchboard operators*.....			21.41		
Payroll clerks (women).....			21.12		
Experienced typists*.....			20.75		
Order clerks (women).....		less than	20.01		
Cost clerks (women).....		less than	20.00		
Junior clerks (women).....			18.61		
File clerks*.....			17.45		
General clerks (women).....			17.36		
Mail clerks (women).....			17.16		
Inexperienced typists.....			16.39		

*Men and women are included in these classifications. The men in every case, however, are greatly in the minority so that the figures are essentially based on women's salaries.

taries over thirty or that the salary peak is probably reached by the time the girl is thirty.

The most thorough study of salaries of office positions was published in 1926 by the National Industrial Conference Board.² This study makes no distinction between the salaries of men and women and includes all ages. However, since in a total of 3598 stenographers and secretaries there were only 250 men (slightly less than 7 per cent), the salaries are essentially women's salaries. The median salaries from this study are stated in Table XXXIV and compared with the median salaries as given by the other tabulations already referred to in this section.

The second most numerous group among the girls studied is the clerical workers, the third the bookkeepers, fourth typists, fifth general office workers, sixth filing clerks. A seventh fairly numerous group includes a variety of workers, all of whom use some mechanical device usually other than the typewriter, — billing clerks, comptometer operators, switchboard, telephone and telegraph operators and cashiers. The girls in these groups were too few for individual consideration. The range, median salaries and salaries of the middle fifty per cent for each type of work are given in Table XXXV, for certain groups and for composite groups.

From these figures it would seem that \$23 to \$30 per week is what the average girl stenographer or bookkeeper can expect to earn. The amount would be slightly less in small cities, somewhat more in large. It would vary between individual girls: approximately 25 per

cent of girls so employed would receive less than \$23 per week, approximately the same proportion would receive more than \$30 per week. Typists, general office workers and clerical workers can expect to receive from \$18 to \$24 per week. Again, 25 per cent of the girls so employed will earn less than \$18 per week, and the same proportion more than \$24 per week. Filing yields distinctly less than any of the positions named so far. The salaries here fall approximately \$2.00 per week lower than the last group. The "mechanical operators" earn about the same as the typists, general office workers and clerical workers.

There is involved in these figures an element of experience—but the higher salaries are not all earned by the older girls. Native ability and education have their part, and also the fact is important that a given job may pay only so much and no more.

BUSINESS GIRLS AT SIXTEEN

Among Chicago business girls who spent their vacations at Forest Beach Camp more than half were at work in offices before they were seventeen years old. A composite group from Chicago Y. W. C. A. clubs and classes shows almost as high a percentage at work before they were seventeen. For the smaller cities of the middle west the age for beginning work is slightly higher. Only 24 per cent of the girls at the Camp Gray conferences were under seventeen when they started work, as against 50 per cent for Chicago girls. The largest group of girls beginning work at any one age falls at eighteen years in the small cities, at sixteen years in Chicago. This means, of course, that the small city girls tend to complete their high school work, the Chicago girls to drop out at the end of two years of high school work (a small percentage of the "Chicago girls" were reared in small places and later came

2. *Clerical Salaries in the United States*, pp. 30 and 24. This is the best standard for clerical salaries. The study covers specified establishments in eighteen cities: Baltimore, Boston, Buffalo, Chicago, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Denver, Kansas City, Mo., Los Angeles, Minneapolis, New Orleans, New York, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Portland, Ore., San Francisco, Seattle.

TABLE XXXVI

AGES AT WHICH GIRLS FIRST BEGAN TO WORK

Age in years	Small middle western towns (Camp Gray conference)	Chicago Y. W. C. A. camp and club girls
12	..	2
13
14	10	9
15	12	19
16	30	52
17	44	31
18	67	32
19	30	12
20	12	4
21	6	2
22	2	2
23	1	..
24	1	..
25
26	1	..
Total.....	216	165

to Chicago to work).³ (See Table XXXVI.)

In both Chicago and smaller places girls enter business while they are still adolescents and with experience limited largely by the social contacts and the control provided by home, church, and school.

HOW GIRLS SECURE POSITIONS

Another problem is that of securing positions. Table XXXVII shows how 176 girls in various cities secured positions. Office positions seem to be largely secured either through the two agencies of newspaper advertisements or employment bureau, or through personal contacts or direct application. In any case the system is largely haphazard and there is little consideration of the special fitness of the girl for the job or the job for the particular girl. The trial and error pro-

3. This tendency for Chicago girls to enter into offices at sixteen years of age is undoubtedly due in part to the fact that Chicago offers a two-year commercial course in the public high schools.

cess which results is undoubtedly back of many of the "temporary jobs" with which girls have experience.

HOW LONG DOES A JOB LAST?

An important problem from the point of view of advancement in salary for the girl and of loss of efficiency for business is the frequency with which girls change positions. How long does the typical business girl remain in one position?

Most of the girls applying for office positions at the Chicago Y. W. C. A. Employment Bureau have worked at least five or six years—they are past the preliminary period of adjustment and should be following the normal course of business life. Their positions last, however, for an astonishingly short period. Positions held by girls applying for office positions at the Chicago Collegiate Bureau of Occupations were of even shorter duration, no doubt due to the fact that they included a certain number of summer positions held by college students and teachers. Out of 752 Chicago positions recorded in the two bureaus, 36.4 per cent lasted no longer than 6 months, while 70.9 per cent lasted no longer than 18 months. For positions in cities and towns other than Chicago the percentage of short-term positions is lower—63.2 per cent lasting no longer than 18 months. (See Table XXXVIII.)

A study of a similar sort for applicants at an employment agency in Indianapolis

TABLE XXXVII

METHODS BY WHICH POSITIONS WERE SECURED BY 176 GIRLS

Employment agency.....	57	positions
Through a friend.....	39	"
By direct application.....	33	"
Newspaper advertisements.....	29	"
School.....	22	"
Through a relative.....	19	"
Was offered the position.....	13	"
"Heard there was an opening".....	5	"

shows that the average length of time women office workers held positions was 19 months.⁴

It must be recognized, of course, that these studies are of girls who are out of work, the unemployed, and hence there is always the suspicion that some at least may be unemployable and that this accounts for a portion of the short terms. Then, too, there is no way to determine what proportion of workers is represented in these groups. The employment office records may represent simply a group of office "transients".

Fortunately, there is some information for girls now employed. Girls in Chicago and nearby cities who were tested or interviewed gave specific information about their present and past positions, naming 86 jobs in addition to present ones, making a total of 136 jobs,

or an average of 2.7 jobs per girl. Some of the girls were beginners and others had held five or six different positions in a few years time. Of the 86 past positions forty-nine or 57 per cent lasted less than one year and 74.5 per cent lasted not longer than eighteen months. (See Table XXXIX.) These girls have worked at their present positions from one month to seven years. Twenty-two of them have been in their present positions less than a year and 9 of them between one and two years, 8 between two and three years, and only 11 of them three years or longer.

A study has been made of office workers employed by the Aetna Life Insurance Company of Hartford, Conn., covering seven years of service.⁵ Of 201 women employed during 1920, 43 per cent left the firm during their first year

4. Harry Dexter Kitson, "Vocational Histories of Office Workers, a statistical study," *Journal of Personnel Research*, 4, (1925-26), 429-32.

5. Marion A. Bills, "Permanence of Men and Women Office Workers," *Journal of Personnel Research*, Vol. V. (1926-1927), 402-04.

TABLE XXXVIII
LENGTH OF TIME GIRLS HOLD POSITIONS

	Chicago Positions				Positions in other cities and towns			
	I	II	Total	Percentage	I	II	Total	Percentage
Less than 6 months.....	136	138	274	36.4	26	62	88	22.6
6 through 11 months.....	80	55	135	18.0	25	61	86	22.1
1 to 1½ years.....	77	47	124	16.5	38	34	72	18.5
1½ to 2 years.....	27	12	39	5.2	6	13	19	4.9
2 to 2½ years.....	36	27	63	8.4	22	20	42	10.8
2½ to 3 years.....	16	9	25	3.3	1	10	11	2.8
3 to 3½ years.....	18	5	23	3.1	13	6	19	4.9
3½ to 4 years.....	10	2	12	1.6	6	5	11	2.8
4 years.....	14	6	20	2.7	8	12	20	5.1
5 years.....	11	4	15	2.0	3	8	11	2.8
6 years.....	4	6	10	1.3	3	4	7	1.8
7 years.....	2	1	3	.4	3	3	.8
8 years.....	2	2	4	.5
9 years.....	2	1	3	.4
10 years.....	1	1	2	.3
Total number of positions...	436	316	752	100.1	154	235	389	99.9

Figures in Column I are from the records of the Chicago Y. W. C. A. Employment Bureau.

Figures in Column II are from the records of the Chicago Collegiate Bureau of Occupations.

The figures refer to tenure of positions held prior to the time when applications were made at the employment bureaus.

of service, 12 per cent during the second year of service, 4 per cent during the third year, 3 per cent during the fourth, 6 per cent during the fifth, 2 per cent during the sixth, and 2 per cent during the seventh, leaving only 15 per cent of the original 201 women in the employ of the firm at the end of seven years. The average years of service of the entire group was slightly less than two years, and of those leaving a trifle over one year.

It seems evident then that fifty per cent of the office positions girls secure they will not keep longer than a year, while a term of two or three years is much more usual than terms of service of six or seven years. This means that for the normal girl there recurs at frequent intervals the problem of transferring from one position to another, perhaps of deciding whether to change the type of work she is doing, often of financially tiding herself over the interval of unem-

ployment, and often too of making new friends in her new surroundings.

While it is not possible to offer statistics to support the statement which follows, a close study of the records indicates three periods when the office worker may expect to face a transition period marked by a succession of short term positions. The girl's permanent entrance into the business world is often prefaced by one short term position after another, —an apprenticeship period when she apparently learns all the small details not taught in commercial schools and learns also to adjust herself to the demands and limitations of office work.⁶ She may be

6. Girls freshly graduated from commercial courses frequently do not know how to fold letters properly, open and sort mail speedily, seal letters, write checks, or many other routine details of office work. Less mechanical items, like sending telegrams, express packages, ordering stamped envelopes, are usually learned after the girl begins work. The transition from home or school to office in the matter of personal deportment is also learned "on the job." Only actual experience in the office seems to teach the girl how much time she may spend on matters of toilet, on talking of personal affairs, or how to mix the proper elements of personal and impersonal interest.

TABLE XXXIX

LENGTH OF TIME GIRLS HOLD POSITIONS

(Records of girls interviewed. Most of these girls were working in Chicago at the time this information was obtained, but they reported for all positions held, whether in Chicago or elsewhere.)

Time	Length of service in previous positions		Number of girls with specified length of service in present position at time of interview
	Number of girls	Percentage	
Less than 6 months.....	31	36.0	14
6 through 11 months.....	18	21.0	8
1 to 1½ years.....	15	17.5	6
1½ to 2 years.....	7	8.1	3
2 to 2½ years.....	5	5.8	4
2½ to 3 years.....	2	2.3	4
3 to 3½ years.....	3	3.5	4
3½ to 4 years.....			1
4 years.....	4	4.7	1
5 years.....			3
6 years.....			1
7 years.....	1	1.2	1
Totals.....	86	100.1	50

able to secure only a temporary position; she is the first to be "laid off" if work becomes slack; or her inexperience may cause her to be "laid off". A second period of short term positions arises when the girl moves from one city to another. Her experience does not always suffice to place her quickly in a permanent position, due, it seems, to inadequate methods of placement. The usual method of calling an employment agency by telephone to "send over" a stenographer or of placing a blind ad in the newspaper means a very haphazard selection of a girl, who is then tried out in a position. In many instances, while she may be a competent worker she does not fit into a given situation and soon finds herself in need of a new position. A third transition period of short term positions comes when a girl who has served for years in one position finds herself for some reason in need of a new position. She is in some sense a specialist in her line of work and perhaps out of touch with other lines of business. She may have carried responsibilities and received an unusually high salary. She has no doubt developed habits which make it difficult for her to adjust to new conditions. She often finds herself into and out of several positions before she again has a truly permanent position.

A critical problem is involved in these short term positions. There is waste here for the girl and for business. A study of the reasons for short term positions and of ways of training and placing girls to eliminate them would be of worth.

WHY GIRLS LEAVE THEIR JOBS

On the basis of three sets of data, the most common reason as given by girls for leaving jobs had to do with internal conditions of business which forced the girl out (Table XL). Lack of salary advancement, mobility of the girl (moving from one city to another), and personal

dissatisfaction with a given position are the other three major reasons given. With one group, applicants for positions at the Chicago Collegiate Bureau of Occupations, change of occupation led to the giving up of a large number of positions, due to the inclusion among these applicants of many college students and teachers who worked for short periods, then returned to college or class room.

These tables give the girls' own statements as to why they left. In the employment bureau records no check could be made against the girl's statement. For the girls who were interviewed personally their first statements were modified according to statements made during the interview. Accordingly, this data is more colorful and there are indications of office dissensions not always of a creditable nature to the girl herself and of a type which she would not be apt to place upon an application for a new position.

Several reasons for leaving positions do not appear at all or in sufficient quantity upon these records. One is marriage. Since these are records of unmarried girls still employed, this reason is omitted entirely. There are also undoubtedly girls who leave business to enter school or college and who do not return to business. Hence this reason is probably understated on the tabulations. Race and religion, scarcely mentioned in these records, are sometimes a difficulty, perhaps not of keeping positions, but of securing them in the first place. The following are merely chance observational instances but hint at a problem.

A business college was asked to provide a stenographer for temporary work at a very moderate salary. The director of the school said he could provide a higher type of girl at the salary named if he could send a Jewish girl, as these girls were very hard to place.

A Jewish girl with an anglicized name answered a newspaper ad for a position as stenographer and confided to an older worker in the office that she had great difficulty in finding a position because of her race.

Newspaper ads are often very explicit on the matter of religion.

THE EXPERIENCES OF INDIVIDUAL GIRLS

Statistical tables show trends and generalizations. The work records of particular girls show another picture, the interrelation of factors which operate together for failure or success. From the many interviews and written records the following excerpts have been chosen to show types of adjustment to business, the more or less accidental nature of the girl's progress, and the helpless and planless way in which girls enter the business world. Many of them have chosen business without knowing much about it—

because their mothers wanted them to go into business, because their friends worked in offices, because they had to do something remunerative and office work afforded a relatively easy entrance. The extremely youthful age at which these girls enter business and their inexperience present a positive challenge to institutions to guide them during their first few years. Many public and business schools attempt to place the girl in her initial job, although apparently few girls really secure positions through schools. (See Table XXXVII.) Employ-

TABLE XL
WHY GIRLS SAY THEY LEFT POSITIONS

Reasons for leaving positions	Records of Y. W. C. A. Employment Bureau, Chicago		Records of Chicago Collegiate Bureau		Statements of girls interviewed	
	Number of girls	Percentage	Number of girls	Percentage	Number of girls	Percentage
INTERNAL CONDITIONS OF BUSINESS						
Company went out of business, closed branch office, failed, seasonal work, slack season, change of officers and new force employed, temporary work, etc...	198	38.1	121	25.3	15	17.2
MOBILITY OF GIRL						
Moved, took long trip, wanted to be in larger city, to go abroad, etc.....	87	16.7	80	16.7	11	12.5
LACK OF SALARY OR ADVANCEMENT						
No future in job, wanted more salary, was refused a raise, etc.....	83	15.9	83	17.3	28	31.7
DISSATISFACTION ON PART OF GIRL						
Long hours, unpleasant surroundings or associates, disagreeable employer, etc..	53	10.2	30	6.3	14	15.9
ILLNESS, trouble with eyes, etc.....	38	7.3	21	4.4	5	5.7
HOME CONDITIONS						
Illness in family, death, mother wanted her to come home, etc.....	22	4.2	19	4.0	2	2.2
CHANGE OF OCCUPATION, including return to school.....	29	5.6	107	22.3	2	2.2
"LAID OFF" BECAUSE OF SOME DEFICIENCY						
Not able to do the work, resented taking orders, did not obey rules regarding overtime work, etc.....	6	1.1			11	12.5
MISCELLANEOUS.....	4	.7	18	3.8		
Total number of positions.....	520	99.8	479	100.1	88	99.9

ment agencies on the whole cannot be expected to do a thorough piece of work. Most of them are run on a commercial basis and the standard of ethics in some is not high. Girls complain that some commercial employment bureaus tell them that a position is permanent even when they know it is temporary, in order that they may secure from the girl the higher fee charged for placement in a permanent position. The agencies are under pressure from the employer to fill a position promptly or lose a customer and only a meagre attempt is made to fit the girl to the position. The solution seems to lie in better vocational guidance before the girl leaves school, in some continued contact between girl and vocational adviser during her first few years of work, and in better standards for employment bureaus in general.

In the interview cases more or less detailed information was given concerning vocational history. The salaries of this group, which included girls from four cities, ranged from \$12 to \$37.50 per week. The cases which follow are taken, after careful study, as typical of the low, middle and high salary ranges.

BEGINNERS

Case 20.—Age twenty, high school graduate, Otis score of 45 (normal). A. lives at home in a large city. After her graduation from the commercial course, a school official secured her a position in general office work at \$17.00 a week. She liked the work, the office force was "so friendly and lenient and was just like a big good-natured family." After working there eighteen months she was dismissed because business was slack and she was the younger and less experienced of the two girls in the office.

Case 21.—Age twenty, high school graduate, Otis score of 41 (normal). B. came from a rural home to a large city where she had relatives. She brought with her an interest in writing but no business training. A friend told her relatives of an opening as file clerk in a large concern and she started to work at \$17 a week. After a few months she was given typing to do and was told the firm would like her to continue with them and "grow up" in the work. She is now planning to study stenography in the evenings.

THE UNTRAINED WORKER

Case 22.—Age twenty-four, one year of high school, Otis score 50 (high normal). C. is now in her sixth position in nine years of work. Her salary has ranged from a beginning salary of \$6.00 a week as stock girl to \$40 a month and maintenance when she worked for eight months as head of a diet kitchen in a sanitarium. She found this work too exhausting and returned to business. For the past eight months she has been working as assistant manager, cashier and bookkeeper in a small ready-to-wear shop at \$15 a week. The hours are long but she sees an opportunity for advancement. She has studied English, typing and shorthand for various short periods, but has never held a stenographic position. Her various types of work include stock girl, saleslady, cashier, bookkeeper.

Case 23.—Age twenty-three, grammar school education, Otis score 53 (superior). After living for some years in an obscure part of the country, D. went to a large city. Through family and other contacts she was able to speak several foreign languages and secured work as interpreter at an employment bureau for \$20 a week. Later she received \$22 a week. The secretary in the office was too "bossy" and she left after 18 months, securing through an agency similar work in another place where she worked one year. She left because of low salary and found through a friend a position to translate stories, where she worked for six months at \$20 a week. She then moved to another city to be with her parents who had moved there. The only work she could find was in a mail order house, a position secured through a newspaper, where she worked for six months, earning \$16-\$20 a week. She felt that the "boss picked on her" and left, securing through an agency a place as switchboard operator and typist at \$21 a week. She has held this position for four months, likes it, and plans to study stenography in the evenings. In four years' time she has held five positions and has not increased her salary range.

THE EXPERIENCED BUT UNTRAINED GIRL OUT OF WORK

Case 24.—Age twenty-six, high school graduate, Otis score 53 (superior). E. held several short-term positions during the course of her high school days and after graduation worked as assistant to the manager of a suburban firm. An accident had left her with a slightly crippled arm which made typing difficult, and this particular position was of a semi-executive nature and required little typing. She worked there four years, receiving \$20 to \$25 a week. She left to enter college, her health broke down, she was ill and used her money in the course of her recovery. She moved to the nearby city and in five months' time had four weeks' work with salary ranging from \$15 to \$20. Two of the positions were tem-

porary. Meanwhile she borrowed money to live on. Later she went to work in a suburban newspaper office at \$20.00 a week. She is registered at six agencies but has secured all of her positions through friends. She says she has spent days tramping the streets and she knows how girls feel when they are out of work—"the lake looks good to them." She lacks the vitality to study regularly at evening school and has no money to attend school during the day time.

YOUNG GIRLS WHO HAVE MADE RAPID ADJUSTMENTS

Case 25.—Age eighteen, high school graduate, Otis score 65 (very superior). F. had part time work as stenographer while in high school and upon graduation answered an ad in the newspaper and secured work in an office employing about forty men and women. She receives \$23 a week, has a position of responsibility, and looks forward to progress in the office. She has held this position for about eighteen months. She studies at night school and has a vague ambition to be a librarian, but is nevertheless content with her work.

Case 26.—Age seventeen, three years of high school, Otis score 54 (superior). G. began to work when fifteen years old although she told her employer she was sixteen. A relative secured a place for her as clerical worker in a large manufacturing plant. She has worked there two years, beginning at \$18 a week. She now receives \$22, likes the work and expects to continue in it. There is a regular system for promotion and salary increases.

Case 27.—Age twenty, high school graduate, Otis score 46 (normal). H. worked for a year and three months as stenographer in a position secured through a teacher. She received \$17-\$18 a week and left when a friend told her of a better position. She has worked in the second position less than a year, starting at \$19 a week. She now receives \$21 and expects to receive \$25 before her first year of service is completed. She likes her position and expects to continue in it.

Case 28.—Age nineteen, three years of high school, Otis score 55 (superior). J. started to work at sixteen and was "laid off" from her first position. She secured another position through a relative as assistant to the cashier in a wholesale grocery house and later when the cashier left she was given the position. She received \$27 a week and planned to study to become an accountant.

Case 29.—Age nineteen, two years of high school, Otis score 43 (normal). K. studied stenography in high school but did not care for it and applied at an employment agency for general office work. She secured work in a system of chain stores and has worked with the firm for three years. She began at \$15 a week but now receives \$25. She likes the work and expects to continue in it.

HOW GIRLS HAVE REACHED THE HIGHER SALARY RANKS

Case 30.—Age twenty-four, completed third year high school, Otis score of 61 (superior). At the age of sixteen L. had completed a business school course and started stenographic work at a manufacturing concern at \$15 a week. She "heard they wanted someone." Soon after she started to work the manager's secretary left and various stenographers in the office were tried out for the position. None could take his dictation. At last she was tried and could do the work to please him. The older girls were extremely jealous and to adjust the situation which resulted she was taken from this work. As her previous position had been filled while she was acting as secretary, she was dismissed, after only a few months' work.

She next worked for a few months for \$3.00 a day at temporary typing for a church and followed this by doing general office work for a doctor for \$12.50 a week until he could find an older woman who could combine office duties and nursing. The church work she secured through the business school, the office position through a friend.

An employment agency sent her to a manufacturing concern where she began work at a salary of \$15 a week and at the end of seven years' service was receiving \$25 a week. She liked the work and the manager. A change occurred in the management, the concern began to "go down hill" and she did not like the man promoted to the managership. She had decided to leave and was seeking a new position when a competitor with offices in the same building offered her a position as secretary to the manager of a new branch office in another city. She accepted at a salary of \$150 a month.

Case 31.—Age twenty-six, completed second year high school, Otis score of 36 (normal). At her mother's wish M. studied for a profession while in school, but wished to go to work as all her friends were working. Her mother consented and she entered a business school which later secured for her a position at \$20 a week. The woman under whom she worked was partial to other girls. She received a \$2 raise but after doing some special work asked for another raise. This was refused and she left. An employment agency placed her at \$25 a week with a branch office of an eastern manufacturing concern. After being there eight years, and serving three managers, she earned \$150 a month. At the time of the interview she was planning to leave as the new manager wished to place a relative in the office and suggested cutting her salary to \$27 a week.

Case 32.—Age twenty-five, two years of high school, Otis 46 (normal). N. left high school before she had completed the commercial course, because of economic necessity. She says it took her "a long time to light." She

held three jobs in five months, doing typing and general office work. The first job she secured through an ad and the other two through friends. She found the work uncongenial and answered another ad, finding work in the office of a factory. She stayed there five years during which time she studied shorthand at night.

The factory was moved and she decided to go to another city for a short time. In the new city she found work through answering an ad, worked a few months and returned home. She later returned to the city and secured work through personal application. She did not like the location or office contacts and left after five months to take another position suggested by a friend. She worked in this place a year, although the salary was lower than she had been receiving. She felt she was getting into a rut and answered another ad, securing work this time in a small investment office. She began at \$30 a week and after about eight months work still likes the place and expects to stay.

Case 33.—Age twenty-seven, high school graduate, Otis score 54 (superior). O. lived in a small town and by direct application secured work as clerk and cashier, receiving \$10-12 a week. After two years she went to a small city and completed a course in stenography. After eight weeks' work she moved to a large city, to which her parents had moved. Her first position was secured through answering a newspaper ad. She stayed one year and received \$25 a week. She was dismissed because of certain untactful things which she had done. She secured another position through her sister and for two years has worked in one place. She receives \$35 a week and is "senior girl" in her department, with six girls under her direction.

INTERRELATIONS OF FACTORS

From the preceding sections we begin to get a composite picture of the business girl. The typical office girl is under thirty; she has more than average intelligence; she has had four years of high school, plus some definite business training; she earns approximately \$25 per week. Are there interrelations between these facts? Does the girl with definitely less intelligence or definitely less education receive less salary? To discover such interrelations correlations were worked out between several factors for two groups. Group I included 154 girls from cities of 500,000 population or over (primarily Chicago girls.) Group II in-

cluded 167 girls from cities of less than 500,000 population. The girls are the ones already referred to, in Y. W. C. A. clubs and residences and attendants of Y. W. C. A. summer conferences and camps. In both groups women over 30 were included for whom there were data in order to give a wider range and hence more valid conclusions. In the matter of intelligence it was sought to discover whether age had anything to do with the scores. Such was not, however, the case. For large cities the correlation between age and intelligence test scores was $-.028 \pm .055$; for smaller cities the correlation was $-.199 \pm .050$. These scores may indicate a slight correlation between the more youthful ages and high intelligence test scores but the relationship is so slight as to be almost negligible. It may be accounted for either by assuming that younger girls less far removed from the mental discipline of the school room can answer the test questions with more facility, or that the brighter girls drop out of office work while still young, either to marry or to enter professions.

Has intelligence anything to do with the amount of education the girl obtains—do the brighter girls, for instance, have more years of schooling than the less bright? For the large cities the correlation between years of general education and intelligence test scores is $+.325 \pm .051$; for small cities it is $+.190 \pm .05$. These figures indicate, especially in the larger cities, a tendency for the brighter girls to continue longer in school. It must be remembered, of course, that practically all of the girls in both groups make scores of normal intelligence or better—that is, practically the entire number is capable of carrying high school work. In an unselected sampling of population which would include persons of dull mentality, there would be a much higher correlation between intelligence test scores and years of education, since it is well known that persons who score be-

low a certain point on the tests cannot carry high school or college work and tend to drop out of school before high school is reached⁷. With a group of good mentality, even the low positive correlations discovered above are significant, as indicating that the less bright girls leave school earlier than their brighter companions, not, perhaps because they cannot carry the work, but more probably because they find school work uninteresting and unsuited to their abilities.

Does ability on the intelligence tests have anything to do with salary earned? Here again we must remember that the test scores are practically all normal or better than normal and that a more widely distributed group which would include both low scores and more very high scores would probably show a higher correlation between test ability and salary. There is a definite ranking of vocations with reference to ability on intelligence tests, which would indicate a relationship to salary, insofar as certain vocations have certain standards of salary. On the other hand, within any one vocation, not a great deal of relationship has been discovered between intelligence test scores and salary⁸. In larger cities the correlation between salary and intelligence test scores for office workers is $+.123 \pm .058$; in small cities it is $+.0248 \pm .053$. It must be recalled of course that the element of experience has not been eliminated from these figures. When age, which is a fairly good index of years of

experience, is held constant, the correlation between intelligence test scores and salary is $+.304$ for large cities and $+.321$ for small cities. These figures do not show any definite and closely predictable relationship between mental ability and salary, assuming of course in the first instance that the mental ability is at least normal. Few girls who would rank as dull on the tests seem to get into skilled office vocations. There is however a slight tendency for the brighter girls to receive higher salaries.

If we regard salary as a crude criterion of the girl's success in her vocation we find the following influential factors, in addition to intelligence. For the large cities salary and amount of general education correlate $+.0374 \pm .0615$; for the small cities the correlation of these factors is $+.0037 \pm .053$. This means that there is practically no correlation. We must recall, however, that these girls represent a narrow range of education. Few of them have less than nine years, few have more than twelve years. These figures may be interpreted to mean that nine or ten years of education are probably as adequate a basis for entrance into office work as twelve years. The fact that so few girls are found in office positions with less than nine or ten years of schooling indicates that this amount is an almost necessary minimum. The factor of business training is not considered here. It may be that specific business training makes a greater difference in salaries than one or two years of general education. To support this hypothesis the following facts may be cited. When 381 consecutive applicants for office positions at the Chicago Y. W. C. A. Employment Bureau are grouped by years of general education and account taken of business college training, and salaries compared for the groups, it is apparent that the girls with business college in addition to public school tend to have higher salaries and this difference is evi-

7. Studies of children who have left school early to work usually at unskilled or semi-skilled trades and who are in continuation school, show that these children have a lower median intelligence than the median for children who continue in school. See Table XXII.

8. See W. W. Charters, "Success, Personality and Intelligence," *Journal of Educational Research*, XI (1925), 169-176. With reference to one vocation, he writes, "On numerous occasions it has been demonstrated that the correlation between intelligence scores and success in salesmanship drops below the school correlation of plus 0.50 and hovers around zero. The bright man is no more likely to make a good salesman than is one less bright. The methods of measuring success may be faulty, but it is a peculiar fact, as well as a significant one, that no matter what the method for measuring success may be—be it earning power or judgment of executives—there is no correlation" (with intelligence scores).

dent in spite of the fact that in many cases high school education means commercial high school courses. Thus the highest salary earned by a girl not over thirty years old with eighth grade education was \$28, that by a girl with eighth grade plus business college, \$35; the highest salary earned by a girl with ninth grade education was \$35, that by a girl with ninth grade plus business college was \$40; the salary of a girl with tenth grade, \$30, tenth grade plus business college, \$35; eleventh grade, \$30, eleventh plus business college, \$35; twelfth, \$46, twelfth plus business college, \$35. In only the last group does the relationship fail to hold. In other ranks of salary, e. g., the median salary or the lowest salary earned by different educational groups, the relationship of salary to special business training is not so marked as with girls who have risen above the average for their class.

The relation of special training to salary is indicated again by the experience of girls with college training, who often have not had special commercial training. For the stenographers and secretaries in the records of the Chicago Collegiate Bureau of Occupations the girls with some college training received on the whole lower salaries than girls without college training. (See Table XLI.) It is true that there is no definite check on business training, but reading the hundreds of records makes it clear that fewer of the college trained girls have business training than have girls without college training.

The following abstracts of records from the Y. W. C. A. Employment Bureau and the Chicago Collegiate Bureau of Occupations are typical of the experiences of girls, well trained through college in some special field, who attempt to enter business without specific commercial training.

1. Age thirty, college education, eight years of teaching experience. This woman asked at the bureau for office work, work with children, assistant to dentist or doctor (all poorly paid positions).

2. Age nineteen, normal school training, one year teaching experience at \$25 per week. Asked for general office work and was willing to receive as low as \$15 a week for her services.

3. Age twenty-seven, college training, had taught at \$1400 per year. Asked for work as saleswoman, in office or as waitress, at \$18 to \$25 per week.

4. Age twenty-two, college training, had taught two years at \$20 per week. She asked for office work, cashier's position, or addressing at \$14-15 per week. She had worked at mailing catalogues two months at \$15-17 per week and as cashier four months at \$14 per week.

The following records give in more detail the experiences of two girls with more than high school training but no business training.

Case 34.—Age twenty-four, one year of normal school, two years experience as teacher in a rural school. This girl left her home in a small town and came to the city, expecting to secure work as a governess and continue her training in a city university, in order to be able to teach in a town school. She registered at an agency but failed to secure a position as governess. A friend then took her to a large department store where she secured work selling. She does not like the work and can save nothing on the \$20 a week she earns, although she lives very frugally. She would prefer office work to selling, but has no training. She is practicing typing in the evenings, hoping later to find office work.

TABLE XLI

HIGHEST WEEKLY SALARIES RECEIVED BY GIRLS IN STENOGRAPHIC POSITIONS

	Lowest salary	Median salary	Highest salary
122 positions held by girls with not more than 12 years of education.....	\$12.00	\$29.00	\$52.00
245 positions held by girls with more than 12 years of education.....	\$15.00	\$25.00	\$58.00

Case 35.—Age twenty-eight, A.B. from a middle western college of good standing, four years' teaching experience, with a beginning salary of \$1350 and a maximum of \$1650 per year. This girl stopped teaching in order to live near her family for a year. When she again applied for a teaching position she found the field overstocked with teachers and failed to secure a position. After several temporary positions she found clerical work in a book-keeping department for \$23.50 per week, which makes a yearly salary of \$1222—less than she received for her first nine months of teaching. She cannot save any money. She had great difficulty in securing work and believes that a college education and teaching experience are a hindrance. She says she became desperate in her search for work and finally asked whether intelligence did not count for anything (she ranks in the "very superior" group according to the Otis test). She was given the position.

Her experiences have left their mark on her attitudes toward herself and toward her work. She likes the work but is not satisfied with herself for staying. At the same time she is afraid she is too old and believes that employers want younger girls, that if she trains for secretarial work she would not be able to secure a position. She hides the fact that she has college training. She studied book-keeping at night school but lacks confidence to attempt to secure a position as bookkeeper.

This girl is small, refined, talks well and easily, dresses attractively and with secretarial training would undoubtedly be successful in a position which did not call for any undue amount of executive ability. She does not have the training and her experiences have caused her at least temporarily to lose her grip.

How much influence do age and span of business experience have upon salary? For large cities the correlation between age and salary is $+.5814 \pm .039$; for small cities it is $+.502 \pm .04$. For large cities the correlation between salary and span of business experience is $+.526 \pm .043$; for small cities, $+.487 \pm .041$. When the influence of brightness of the girls as measured by the tests is ruled out, the correlation between age and salary for large cities is $+.735$ and for small cities $+.665$. These figures indicate a marked influence between length of time the girl works and salary, although it must be kept in mind that most of the girls had worked less than eight years. It is probable that the great-

est strides in salary are made during the first ten years of work and that increases are relatively less frequent and smaller in amount as experience goes beyond this point. On the other hand, the youthful

TABLE XLII

TRAITS OF SUCCESSFUL SECRETARIES*

	Number of times each trait was mentioned by 28 employers
Accuracy.....	24
Responsibleness.....	23
Dependability.....	21
Intelligence.....	21
Courtesy.....	20
Initiative.....	20
Judgment.....	20
Tact.....	19
Personal pleasantness.....	18
Personal appearance.....	18
Interest in work.....	17
Speed.....	17
Reticence.....	16
Adaptability.....	15
Businesslikeness.....	15
Neatness.....	15
Memory.....	14
Goodbreeding.....	13
Poise.....	11
Self confidence.....	11
Graciousness.....	10
Honesty.....	10
Health.....	10
Industriousness.....	10
Executive ability.....	9
Loyalty.....	9
Pleasant voice.....	9
Orderliness.....	8
Grooming.....	8
Alertness.....	7
Drive.....	7
Ambition.....	6
Curiosity.....	6
Forcefulness.....	6
Foresight.....	6
Thoughtfulness.....	6
Thoroughness.....	5
Willingness.....	5
Modesty.....	4
Originality.....	4
Patience.....	3
Resourcefulness.....	3
Self control.....	2
Versatility.....	2
Fairness.....	1
Self respect.....	1
Sense of humor.....	1

*W. W. Charters and I. B. Whitley, *Analysis of Secretarial Duties and Traits*, pp. 174-175.

age of office workers indicates that the great majority of them drop out of office work (probably to marry) before they have worked so long a period as ten years. The salary increases of the first decade are therefore the ones practically important to the girl.

PERSONALITY TRAITS OF THE SUCCESSFUL SECRETARY

Other factors beside intelligence, education and experience are important in determining a girl's success. Due to inability to discover a test adequately suited to the purpose, no attempt was made to measure qualities of personality which

might mark the business girl or which might be correlated with success. Here is a very important problem worthy of solution but requiring much time and patience.

A study has been made on the basis of statements of employers as to the qualities which characterize the competent and desirable secretary⁹. Indeed, by the frequency with which employers mentioned specific traits, accuracy, responsibility, and dependability are more important than intelligence¹⁰.

9. W. W. Charters and I. B. Whitley, *Analysis of Secretarial Duties and Traits*, pp. 74-75.

10. Those interested in vocational guidance will find a brief bibliography at the end of this book.

CHAPTER IX

The Girl and Her Money

MONEY TO SPEND

Money to the young business girl is valued for the things it can procure. Rarely does the young girl save money as a matter of principle. If she saves this year it is in order to buy a fur coat or take a long vacation trip next year. The things for which she saves are immediate and tangible. The girl who saves for further education is the exception—and this in spite of the fact that education is one of the things for which the young business girl yearns. The money which the girl earns—and spends—determines at least to some degree her status in her group,—the type of clothing she wears, the frequency with which she may purchase a new dress, the type of vacation she may indulge in, and many other things. Touching another interest, the money she earns determines the degree to which she may help her parents or a younger brother or sister. This interest in helping her family is a very real one and has for its motive two factors—the feeling that she is part of the family, that, as one girl expressed it, what was good for the family was good for her, and the desire to raise her own status by raising that of the family.

A surprisingly large number of girls give all their salary to their mothers, receiving in return an "allowance" for lunch, carfare and minor amusements and buying their clothes under the mother's supervision. This arrangement is capable of several interpretations. For the very young girl it often signifies an extension into adulthood of the protective care which the mother had for the girl when she was a child. Many girls stated that

they really received in the end by this arrangement more than their salary. This situation is especially true in families in which there is a fair amount of money and the girl has been accustomed during school years to have good clothing and amusements. These are the girls who in a previous generation would not have worked but would have remained home with their mothers awaiting a suitor. Now, it is customary for girls from middle-class families to work whether it is absolutely necessary or not. Otherwise the girl has little with which to occupy herself, as there are relatively few household duties in the modern home and, in all probability, the girl's friends are busy working. The situation is of course in part contingent upon the fact that the girl continues to live at home. The shift from this control (of finances and hence of many of the girl's activities) by the mother to independence comes in various ways and usually after the girl has worked for three or more years. In one case it was understood that upon the girl's eighteenth birthday she was to assume control of her salary. This she did, but contributed generously to the household thereafter. A more frequent process was for the girl to become conscious of the fact that other girls she met at work controlled their own money. She then raised the issue at home and usually after a series of quarrels succeeded in obtaining control of "her own money", usually giving her mother a stated sum each week for board and room, using the remainder as she saw fit.

Another interpretation of the system of turning the entire salary over to the

mother is that the family insists upon it because there is actual need in the family. This situation rests, not upon the desire of the mother to continue her maternal protection, but upon the attitude that the family rather than the individual is the unit and that the child belongs to the family and hence can have no independent existence. This attitude is very prevalent among many groups with European background and continues in America among members of the second generation. Girls in these families sometimes openly protest after a few years and gain independence. In many other instances, however, they accept the family attitude as their own and do not object to helping parents and younger brothers and sisters, although there was resent-

ment in every case where some other member of the family, capable of earning a living but not doing so, seemed to be taking advantage of the situation.

In either case the situation seems unwise from the point of view of the girl. The girls who lived at home seemed to have little if any advantage financially over the girls who boarded away from home. As a rule they paid their mothers for board and room an amount equivalent to that required at girls' clubs or moderately priced rooming houses. Many in addition helped with the housework, assisted with ironing, and cared for their own clothes.

The girls as a whole have a great interest in their homes which expresses itself financially. Thus 26 per cent of the

TABLE XLIII

HOW BUSINESS GIRLS SPEND THEIR MONEY (CHIEFLY FROM CHICAGO, BUT INCLUDING A FEW FROM OTHER MID-WEST CITIES)

AVERAGE EXPENDITURE PER YEAR

	Nine girls, with salaries from \$660 to \$1,096 per year		Fifteen girls with salaries from \$1,135 to \$1,490 per year		Six girls with salaries from \$1,500 to \$1,800 per year	
Average salary.....	\$918		\$1289		\$1650	
	Amount	Percentage of total	Amount	Percentage of total	Amount	Percentage of total
Room, board.....	\$232 ¹	25.3	\$475	36.8	\$705	42.7
Clothing.....	248	27.0	296	22.9	232	14.1
Helping parents.....	30 ²	3.3	22	1.7	54	3.3
Education.....	30	3.3	47	3.6	26	1.6
Church, charity.....	28	3.0	35	2.7	21	1.3
Recreation.....	61	6.6	71	5.5	74	4.6
Health.....	34	3.7	60 ³	4.7	24	1.5
Vacation.....	30	3.3	50	3.9	96	5.8
Savings.....	89	9.7	96	7.5	229	13.9
Incidental and unaccounted for...	136	14.8	137	10.6	189	11.4

¹Three girls paid nothing for board or room to their parents, with whom they lived. The actual average for the six girls who paid board and room was somewhat higher than that given in the table—\$348 per year.

²Only two girls gave definite amounts for helping at home in addition to the amounts they paid for board and room. One of these paid \$236 per year, but paid a very low amount for board and room.

³One girl had a health expenditure for the year in question of \$400.00. This increases the average per girl enormously.

girls who answered the question "What would you do if you inherited \$1000 to spend exactly as you please" stated that they would help the family, take their parents on a vacation, improve the home, and so forth. Only two interests (travelling and saving some) appealed to a larger number of girls. (Table XIII.) In some cases the desire to improve the home links up with the girl's social interests. One girl bought a new rug because she did not want her friends to see the old one; a pair of sisters added a mirror, tea set and other small articles in order to entertain their friends. In other cases there is no doubt but that the girl has transferred to a younger brother or sister some of her own unfulfilled ambition. A family in which none of the older children had attended high school planned to send the youngest boy to an expensive church school for high school work. Several girls wanted to help their little brothers, who had not yet reached the age to be interested in higher education, to attend college.

Few indeed are the girls who manage from their moderate salaries to save consistently. One girl who wanted to enter college saved her money for a time, then spent it for clothes; she saved again and spent it for golf clubs. Another girl, motivated with the same desire, saved her money and in the spring of the year dallied with the idea of buying a car, but resisted; when fall came, she thought of a fur coat, but again decided to save the money for school. Thus the more immediate aims and interests encroach upon the more remote ones.

THE BUDGETS OF THIRTY GIRLS

An effort was made to secure an estimation of how girls spent their money, by providing a schedule with major items of expenditure and asking the girls to estimate as carefully as possible what they

had spent for each item during the preceding year. Thirty such budgets were secured with sufficient data to be usable, chiefly from Chicago girls. The efforts to secure more schedules was abandoned because of the difficulty the girls experienced in figuring the amounts. In Table XLIII these budgets are classified into three groups with average expenditures given for each. While the number of girls is too small for the budgets to be conclusive with reference to expenditures, the averages indicate where the girl's money goes, and what becomes of increased amounts earned. The girls with higher salaries pay more for board and room, help their parents more, spend more on recreation and vacations, and save more. Clothing, education and church, if anything, receive a decreased amount.

The budgets vary enormously from girl to girl. Thus a few girls pay nothing to their parents for board or room; six girls pay more than half their salary for this item, this happening most frequently in the highest paid group. This is apparently in part due to the fact that brothers and sisters marry, leaving one daughter at home, who, as she advances into the middle and late twenties, finds almost the whole support of the parental family on her shoulders. Her responsibilities thus increase out of all proportion to her salary increases.

These expenditures which girls have worked out for themselves compare very favorably with standardized budgets for single women. One budget worked out in New York City for 1926 for a total yearly income of \$1058.37 estimates that 34 per cent would be spent for room, 34 per cent for food, and 10 per cent for clothing. On minor items, 1 per cent would be spent for church, 1 per cent for recreation, 2 per cent for vacations, with nothing for education aside from reading

matter.¹ A budget for Washington, D. C., based on a yearly income of \$1140.92 per year, estimates an expenditure of 51 per cent of the total for board and room, 21 per cent for clothing, .5 per cent for church, 2 per cent recreation, nothing for education on the assumption that when night school is attended the amount estimated for recreation would be diverted into this channel, and nothing for vacation, assuming that salary would be paid

during vacations and nothing additional spent.² The New York budget includes no savings, the Washington budget a saving of 10 per cent of the total. The girls whose budgets are given in Table XLIII spend less for board and room and more for clothing, vacations, recreations, church, and education than the standardized budgets allow.³

2. "Quantity-Cost Budget Necessary to Maintain Single Man or Woman in Washington, D. C.," *Monthly Labor Review*, X (Jan., 1920), 35.

3. For bibliography on budgets see p. 88.

1. *The Cost of Living in New York City*, p. 123.

CHAPTER X

The Girl and the Church

THE GIRL AND CHURCH RELATIONS

The girls studied are essentially church attendants. It is perhaps true that the Y. W. C. A. attracts more girls from the church-attending group than from non-church attendants, due more to its traditions than to any restrictions of the present time or any pressure exerted upon the girl who joins the Association.

Of the 423 girls from clubs and conferences for whom statistical data were secured, 75.3 per cent were Protestants, and 16.3 per cent Catholics. The girls who applied for positions at the Collegiate Bureau of Occupations, who may be considered less highly selected religiously, were 78.4 per cent Protestant and 15.7 per cent Catholic. Among girls who applied at the Y. W. C. A. Employment Bureau, 63.8 per cent were Protestant and 23.3 per cent Catholic. From these

figures, based as they are on three different types of groups, we may assume that approximately two-thirds of the women clerical workers are Protestant, 15-20 per cent Catholic, with smaller proportions of Jewish girls and Christian Scientists and a small percentage who state that they have no church affiliation.¹ (See Table XLIV.) The alternative explanation would be that Catholic and Jewish girls have entirely separate means of securing employment and recreation. The first assumption seems the more nearly valid, when one considers that the Catholic and Jewish groups in the cities of the middle west are largely immigrant groups and hence not representative of the clerical group.

1. It is of interest that the Y. W. C. A., historically a Protestant organization, has at the present time a representative proportion of Catholic and Jewish girls among the business girls' group.

TABLE XLIV
RELIGIOUS BACKGROUND OF BUSINESS GIRLS*

	Y. W. C. A. girls in middle west cities		Applicants at Chicago Y. W. C. A. Employment Bureau		Applicants at Chicago Collegiate Bureau of Occupations	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Protestant.....	306	75.3	74	63.8	326	78.4
Catholic.....	66	16.3	27	23.3	65	15.7
Jewish.....	9	2.2	10	8.6	6	1.4
Christian Science.....	7	1.7	4	3.5	12	2.9
Deist.....					1	.2
No church affiliation.....	18	4.5	1	.8	6	1.4
Total.....	406	100.0	116	100.0	416	100.0

*These figures do not indicate church membership, but rather the church the girl "favors", which would indicate in most cases the church with which her family was connected.

A check on church membership of 69 girls at the Camp Gray Conference showed that 54 were members, 14 were not, while one girl (who attended a Jewish congregation) failed to reply to the question. Of 75 students from a woman's college, 55 were church members, 17 were not, and three failed to reply to the question. The business girls show a slightly higher proportion of church members.

The girls in attendance at two summer conferences were asked what church activities they attended in an average week; 30.5 per cent stated they attended one activity per week, usually the Sunday morning church service; 31.6 per cent attended two activities per week. A few girls were at some church service or function as many as five or six times each week. (Table XLV.)

The response to the check list of activities shows 54 per cent of the girls attending some church service once a week. (Table XXXIII.)

More light on the girl's church relationship is shown by the reasons given for going to a particular church. Religion itself is not given as the reason. Social contacts, habits, friendship are the reasons the girls give. (Table XLVI). This places the church rather definitely in the rank of a social institu-

tion for the girls, and of a family and habitual nature.

One of the items on the list of problems which girls were asked to check for themselves was "religious doubts." Only 47 out of 321 girls checked religious doubts as a personal problem. Of the same group, 20 indicated that finding the right church to attend was a problem. (Table VIII.)

At least two problems can be isolated from the more personal data secured through interviews. One concerns the decreasing hold of the church on the girl as she matures and slowly breaks away from childhood ties, even when she lives in the city where she was born. The girl places the responsibility on the church. The following are pointed illustrations, involving churches having an old-world background in the adult membership but having also exceedingly modern, American young people. In lesser degree the same situation is found in churches with an American background.

Case 36.—A's parents were born in Sweden. She and her sister, however, bear no trace of their Swedish ancestry. Small, bright-eyed, bobbed-headed, clad in a short red dress, she was, when interviewed, an excellent sample of the young American business girl. When the children were small the family lived in a Swedish neighborhood, where they attended a Swedish church. As the children grew up the family moved and now there is no Swedish

TABLE XLV

SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO THE QUESTION : WHAT CHURCH OR RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES DO YOU ATTEND IN AN AVERAGE WEEK?

	Camp Gray Conference, 1927-28	
	Number of girls	Percentage
None.....	2	2.1
Less than one activity per week.....	3	3.2
One activity per week.....	29	30.5
One or two per week.....	4	4.2
Two per week.....	30	31.6
Three per week.....	12	12.6
Four per week.....	8	8.4
Five per week.....	5	5.3
Six per week.....	2	2.1
Number of girls replying.....	95*	

*Fifteen more girls answered the questionnaire, but failed to answer this particular question. These girls probably do not attend church.

church nearby. The youngest sister has started to attend a German church nearby. Another sister returns to the family church. A. sometimes returns to the old neighborhood to attend church but she does not like the minister, who is a bachelor, sixty years old, and "does not interest young people." The young people sit in the gallery during the service and talk about the latest novels, or sell dance tickets. A. went on Easter but the gallery was so noisy she could not hear the sermon. "The boys are awful, and give a double meaning to everything the girls say."

Case 37.—B.'s mother was a member of a German protestant church and B attended a church school on Saturdays as a child and was confirmed in the church. When she was about seventeen she began to lose interest in church and thought she would visit some other churches. She went to many of the large churches in her city and to Jewish temples, and found she was interested. She finally decided the trouble was with the minister of her own church—"he always took a text from the Bible and preached on the Bible, never about present day things." She liked "better the sermons about present day problems."

Case 38.—C. stopped going to church because the minister talked about the budget all the time, while she liked to hear sermons about young people and the problems of today.

Case 39.—D., the daughter of a minister, stopped going to church because of the discrepancy between religion as preached and as practised. This conflict does not worry her, although it did at one time.

Often the clubs and classes which interested the girl at sixteen do not interest her at twenty and she gradually drifts away. Her newly made friends in business belong to other churches and she no longer has interests in common with the

boys and girls she sees at the family church. She finds Sunday an excellent day for rest and seeks her contacts with her friends at other places than the church.

The girl who has been accustomed to attend church at home and who comes to a new city to work often finds herself in the predicament of making a new church attachment. A., quoted above, by moving to a new neighborhood in Chicago faced this same problem. B., also quoted above, when she came to Chicago to work tried to establish a new church connection. She went one Sunday to a church of her own denomination. No one spoke to her and she left feeling very badly; she thought to herself that she could go there twenty years and not become acquainted with anybody. One girl in a girl's club instead of attending a church regularly goes with her friends, first to one church, then to another, sometimes attending the Catholic, sometimes a Protestant church. She says no one tries to get acquainted with them in any of the churches. These statements are typical of those made by a number of girls. The large city church is impersonal so far as its church services go. The girl, new to the city, selects a church near her rooming house or of her own denomination and attends a service. She

TABLE XLVI

SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO THE QUESTION: WHY DO YOU ATTEND THE CHURCH YOU DO?

	Camp Gray Conference, 1927	
	Number of girls	Percentage of girls
"Raised in the church".....	17	30.9
Good she gets from it.....	13	23.6
"Parents go there" plus some other reason, e. g., the girl likes it, believes in it.....	8	14.5
Likes the minister and people.....	8	14.5
Likes the church.....	6	10.9
Girl friend goes there.....	1	1.8
Belongs and thinks she ought to go.....	1	1.8
Her "choice" and has friends there.....	1	1.8
Number of girls replying.....	55	

comes away feeling lonely and isolated and feels no impulse to join a class or club or some other small group where relationships would be more personal than is possible in a large auditorium service. The contrast is appalling to her between this situation and the church where she has been reared and knows many people or perhaps the small town church where a stranger is instantly recognized.

The seeming loss of interest in a religion which does not touch closely her own problems is reflected in the experiences of the Y. W. C. A., which began as an organization to bring girls into closer contact with churches and to develop Protestant Christianity. Vesper services and Bible Classes were a definite part of the total Y. W. C. A. program. During the progress of this study a general survey was made of Y. W. C. A. classes open to business girls. Among 132 Associations representing all sizes of towns and cities, 42 per cent offered Bible classes and 10 per cent classes in religion — more than half offered neither. The reason is clear when one considers the comment of several secretaries, that

although Bible classes are offered, no girls register for them. The percentage of active Bible classes is undoubtedly smaller than the percentage stated above. Although the Y. W. C. A. maintains its stated purpose to promote Christian character, it has changed its method from direct and explicit religious services to the use of clubs, classes, and conferences which center about the many cultural and vocational interests of the girls and give opportunity for indirect development of ethical and religious attitudes. The center of attention is not creed or religious precept, but the girl herself.

In this whole situation of the girl and religion lies a definite challenge to the church and quasi-religious agencies, such as the Y. W. C. A. and local clubs. Many of the girls are confused regarding moral standards. Many need a sympathetic adult with whom to discuss personal problems. Many need contacts with other young people under controlled conditions. Especially in cities, a definite church program is needed providing for personal contacts when the girl first comes to church.

Undeveloped Personalities

TYPES OF MALADJUSTMENT

While some of the girls discussed thus far have not been any too well balanced emotionally and many have been confused in point of view and plans for their future, there have been few who would rank as seriously disorganized. This fact is probably due in part to the demand made by business for competency among workers and partly to the fact that the Y. W. C. A. program is scaled to the interests of normal girls and hence makes an appeal to that group. Nevertheless, there are among office workers, as among any other occupational group, girls who are seriously disorganized. The Chicago Y. W. C. A. comes in contact through its employment bureau, room registry, and clubs with a certain number of these girls; it is also frequently asked by some interested person to help some girl. To care for these cases a social worker is included on the staff. Many of the girls who come to her attention are referred to other agencies, especially fitted to handle the type of work needed. Hence the records kept by the social worker are rather brief. The closed records were reviewed for a period of eight years and all cases of business girls (office or sales) were abstracted in an attempt to obtain some tabulation of the types of crises involved, personality traits of the girls, types of adjustment the girls attempted, etc. There were just 72 of these cases. In some instances the girl had come to the Y. W. C. A. seeking aid—for information as to where to find a room, a job, where to borrow money to tide her over a difficulty, and for some reason was

found to need special attention in making an adjustment. In other cases the girl was sent in by some friend, by her employer or even by strangers who had observed that the girl needed help. In other cases the Y. W. C. A. was asked to visit some girl needing assistance.

For purposes of analysis a crisis was considered as any difficulty to which the girl could not adjust without outside help or to which she adjusted so poorly that she came to the attention of others. With this definition in mind, the crises found in the cases were classified empirically, headings being added to the list as needed. There were in all nineteen types of crisis. Inasmuch as no new headings were added after the nineteenth case had been analyzed, this is probably a fairly comprehensive list of the crises which business girls meet. Under each major heading were listed the specific difficulties met. These were exceedingly numerous and the seventy-two cases had not exhausted the possibilities. Table XLVII gives the major crises, with the number of times they arose among the 72 girls, and the chief of the minor crises.

There is an average of slightly more than three crises per girl. The crises vary greatly with reference to the girl's part in their origin. In some cases they are due to the inexperience of the girl, as when she arrives in a strange city without sufficient money to tide her over until she finds work, or when such a girl goes to an expensive hotel without considering the cost, or upon finding her money has all been spent appeals to a stranger for assistance. In other cases

TABLE XLVII

CRISES OF 72 YOUNG BUSINESS GIRLS IN CHICAGO

Physical health difficulties.....	14 instances among 13 girls
(Includes eye trouble, heart difficulties, goitre, illness—all difficulties which interfered with holding a position and entering into normal activities.)	
Pregnancy, without marriage.....	5 instances among 5 girls
Accidents which interfered with working....	2 instances among 2 girls
Physical defects, deafness, speech, blind.....	3 instances among 3 girls
Mental and emotional difficulties—	
Definite diagnosis of some psychosis.....	5 instances among 5 girls
Nervousness, usually combined with irritability, depression, or ideas of persecution.....	5 instances among 5 girls
Hysterical spells.....	3 instances among 3 girls
Miscellaneous difficulties, such as marked lack of self-control, shut-in personality, mental immaturity, etc., some serious enough to have had the attention of a psychiatrist.....	7 instances among 7 girls
In addition to these rather definite symptoms of maladjustment the following traits were noticed as interfering seriously with either social or vocational adjustment: girl who wore unironed clothes and thought that education counted for nothing in the mind of an employer, that only flappers were wanted; girl who seemed unstable and could not be pleased with a room; girl thought by uncle to be a kleptomaniac, since she stole apparently without a motive; girl who was sullen and could not induce anyone to employ her.	
Family relations	23 instances among 21 girls
In these cases some maladjustment at home was a direct factor in the girl's maladjustment. Rarely had two girls experienced the same difficulty. Some of the difficulties were quarrels with mother, conflict regarding the girl's ambitions, feeling ashamed of her home, abuse. In ten other cases, while family conditions were not apparently direct factors, some unusual condition prevailed, for instance, the girl was adopted or lived with relatives, had a step-parent, her parents were divorced or separated. In one case the girl had spent most of her life in girls' schools or clubs.	
Separation from the family and the girl's desire to return home..	2 instances among 2 girls
Dissatisfaction with home town, leading to break with family.....	1 instance 1 girl
Relations with men.....	11 instances among 10 girls
(This does not include the five cases of pregnancy mentioned under physical health conditions.)	
This group includes several cases of girls who came to Chicago with men and were then deserted by them, girls who quarreled with their men friends, flirtations at place of work either sought by the girl or forced upon her, etc.	
No place to stay.....	15 instances among 15 girls
In some cases the girl had just arrived in Chicago and did not know where to go; in three cases the girl had no money; in two she had run away from her home in the city; in several cases the girl found her room unpleasant and wished to be directed to a new room.	
Trouble at girls' club due to breaking rules.....	2 instances among 2 girls
Ejected from room due to non-payment of bills or for quarrelling....	7 instances among 7 girls
In four cases the ejection was from a hotel room, usually an expensive hotel.	
Short disappearance from club or rooming place.....	4 instances among 4 girls
Out of work	
New to the city.....	11 instances among 11 girls
Illness, nervousness	7 instances among 7 girls
Miscellaneous reasons or no reason given.....	14 instances among 14 girls
Dismissed from work.....	3 instances among 3 girls
Work slack	3 instances among 3 girls
Girl unsatisfactory	3 instances among 3 girls
Girl too nervous.....	2 instances among 2 girls
Girl dishonest, lied.....	3 instances among 3 girls
Miscellaneous	2 instances among 2 girls
Work relations	9 instances among 6 girls
Includes carelessness of girl at work which caused difficulty, quarrels, familiarity of employer, "coarseness" of girl.	
Lack of money.....	18 instances among 18 girls
The most frequent cause was lack of a job. In four cases the girl was new to Chicago and had run out of money before securing work.	

Owed money for room, to a commercial firm, to Y. W. C. A.....	17 instances among 16 girls
Clothing held for hotel room rent.....	4 instances among 4 girls
Stealing, from roommate, at work, by forgery.....	6 instances among 6 girls
Unsatisfied ambitions which caused home conflicts.....	2 instances among 2 girls
On the files of some public or social agency other than the Y. W. C. A., including the police courts, charities, Juvenile Protective Association, etc.	
	27 instances among 27 girls
Total crisis situations.....	240 instances among 72 girls

the difficulty is due to the girl's breaking some moral convention or even law, as in the cases of pregnancy without marriage, stealing, forgery. In other cases the girl finds her personal ambitions and interests in conflict with the attitudes and plans of her family or the rules of the club where she lives and refuses to suppress her desires.

The large number of instances of mental and emotional difficulty suggests strongly that the trouble in many cases is not merely that the girl has happened to encounter a difficult situation which she cannot manage alone. Many of these girls with serious maladjustments who require the assistance of one or more agencies have in their mental and emotional equipment something which makes it difficult for them to fit into the conventional social organization. Forty-one percent of the girls on the social worker's records at the Chicago Y. W. C. A. had some such difficulty, ranging from some peculiarity of manner or dress which made them unacceptable as workers and involving lack of ability to change this peculiarity, to definite insanity leading to commitment to an institution. Dr. V. V. Anderson, psychiatrist for R. H. Macy and Co., New York City, found among 1,200 employees that 19 per cent of the sales people and 23 per cent of the non-sales force of the store were problem cases needing expert attention.¹ Apparently the problem group which came to the attention of the Y. W. C. A. contained many more persons with mental and emotional difficulties than

would be expected in an unselected group of business girls.

In many cases the crises are linked and one leads to another. Following are the outstanding points in several cases:

Case 40.—A twenty-one-year-old girl whose home was in Chicago was dismissed from work because she was too nervous to be efficient. She was observed at the Y. W. C. A. using the telephone and showed signs of hysteria. She threatened suicide. The girl had previously left home because she said she "could not live there." She was given medical attention and a long rest was provided for her. (In this case the chain of factors runs: nervousness—leaving home—loss of position; hysteria, suicide threats; supervision by agency.)

Case 41.—A girl of twenty-four had trouble with relatives with whom she lived. She inquired at the Y. W. C. A. for a room and was sent to one, which she inspected but did not take, returning instead to her relatives. After she left the landlady discovered a ring and money had been taken. The girl confessed to taking the money, but was brought to the attention of the police. This girl had run away before and her relatives thought she might be a kleptomaniac as she had previously taken things.

Case 42.—A girl of fifteen who lived with relatives wished to go to her mother who was ill in another city. She took some money and a ring from her relatives and gave the ring to a store clerk to sell for her. She was found wandering around in a store and sent to the Y. W. C. A. Here she gave a false name. Her story was finally straightened out and a job secured for the girl.

Case 43.—A twenty-year-old girl quarrelled with her lover and ran away from home to come to Chicago. This was the third time she had run away. In a few weeks she wished to return home and took \$60 not belonging to her. Later she confessed she took this money and promised to repay it. Previously this girl had entered college but had not fitted in and had left.

A type of serious non-conformity to which the business girls' group does not contribute materially is habitual or pro-

1. "Psychiatry in Business," The Survey, (December 15, 1927), 372.

miscuous sexual offenses. A number of studies have been made of girls and women committed to institutions or under court supervision because of such offenses. A careful survey of these studies indicates that in every group studied the women for the most part come from factory and domestic workers and rarely have more than grade school education. They come from a different social and educational group than do the business girls.²

TYPES OF ADJUSTMENT

Quite often the girl attempts to make her own adjustment to a difficult situation. The girls who voluntarily appealed to the Y. W. C. A. may be thought of as attempting a wholesome adjustment. The following list gives adjustments which may be thought of as unwholesome, which were tried by the girls who had come under the care of the social worker at the Chicago Y. W. C. A.:

Running away from home or club following a conflict, without leaving address and often without any money or prospect of work.....	16 girls
Lies or fanciful tales to explain misconduct	10 girls
Suicide threats or attempts.....	8 girls
Stealing	6 girls
Wandering streets (when without a room)	3 girls
Changing name (usually when running away from home).....	3 girls

2. See chapter VI of this study.

Borrowing from strange men.....	2 girls
Day dreaming, withdrawal.....	2 girls
Living with man without marriage....	2 girls
Crying	1 girl
Secrecy about self	1 girl
Leaving unpaid bills.....	1 girl

(In addition a number of girls permitted accounts; for instance, for room rent, to run for long periods of time.)

The infantile quality of many of these efforts of the girl to obtain security or the satisfaction of her interests is apparent. Very few of the girls made any plans of a practical nature for solving their problems. The girls who voluntarily came to the Y. W. C. A. for help and followed plans there made for them showed the most intelligent adjustment. Aside from a few young and inexperienced girls newly arrived in Chicago, the group as a whole is characterized by such attempts at adjustment as those mentioned above.

These girls represent a distinct problem with which, at present, no special agency deals. They are not able to take their place in competition with others or make their own adjustments. They need re-education under personal supervision. They differ markedly from the girls discussed in preceding chapters, who need opportunities and encouragement for growth, but not continued supervision³.

3. See Bibliography on The Need for a Mental Hygiene Program, p. 87.

A Challenge to Institutions

THE BUSINESS GIRL IN SUMMARY

Whether she lives in town or city, the business girl who is an office worker conforms in many respects to a general pattern, as judged by the data presented in this study. She is young, intelligent, from a middle class home. She has had some high school training and she enters her business life with a definite interest in further education, an interest, which, however, decreases as she grows away from school contacts. Her salary is moderate—\$25 a week, as a generous estimate—and she finds many demands for it from her home and her own interests; nevertheless she manages to save some, even though it may be spent soon for a fur coat or a vacation trip. She expects to marry and usually does before she is thirty, thus becoming part of a swiftly moving parade of young girls who emerge from the school room, contribute their days for a short time to business, and then pass on into homes of their own. Wherever she is found, the young—the typical—business girl has certain interests: education and marriage have been mentioned; her home and family, younger brothers and sisters, girl friends and clubs, sports and dancing, travel, church, and success in business should be added.

One interest not previously discussed is her interest in herself, in her own personality. "Charm Schools," classes in personality, in "social usage," and in popular psychology are exceedingly popular in Y. W. C. A. programs. The two items of a long list of possible problems most frequently marked by business girls were "lack of self-confidence," and

"self-consciousness." Other problems which stood high in the list were inability to control emotions, the belief on the girls's part that she was not good-looking, difficulty in meeting strangers and the feeling of inferiority in the presence of other people. These feelings of inadequacy on the part of the girl are related to her desire for success in business and socially. At the immature age of seventeen she is thrown into the highly organized industrial life of America and expected to compete successfully with older persons of experience and poise. She is expected to know how to meet strangers, to be tactful, dignified, friendly, to display good judgment and to assume responsibility. It is little wonder that many of her fears and worries center about her job and that she becomes self-conscious and dissatisfied with herself. Socially, she is in much the same situation. Her new friends in business must often be drawn from groups of older girls who have gained the poise she lacks and who, with larger salaries, are able to dress better than she can afford to dress. She aspires to become one of them. She meets, too, men older than she knew in school, often men of sophistication and culture. These men set a new standard for her; she expects more from her own friends and she longs to be able to enter into this new world which opens before her.

Sometimes she experiments with new contacts—she goes for the first time with other girls to a public dance hall; she joins a bridge club or sorority which holds its meetings in down-town hotels; she plans a long and expensive vacation

trip; or she accepts an invitation to dinner with some man in the office; she goes to a cabaret for the first time. These experiments may lead to new enjoyments and new friends; or they may lead her into situations which she cannot control and of which she does not approve. In these ways she builds up her feeling of self-confidence or breaks it down.

The business girl is, on the whole, a young person of promise. She has possibilities for further development. Because of her own inexperience, because she has often advanced beyond her family educationally and culturally, she needs the assistance of organized agencies.

WHAT THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS MIGHT DO

1. Retain, if possible, the promising girls through the entire high school course. Some girls leave school because of lack of interest; others because their financial aid is needed at home. The first reason suggests need for study of the girl and adjustment of her course of study. The second suggests the possibility of part-time work for the girl or of scholarship aid.

2. Urge the necessity of definite vocational training, fitted to the girl's capacities. The intelligent girl who is doing poorly paid, general office work is as much misplaced as the inadequate girl who is attempting to keep books. Even when the girl confidently expects to marry, she should be given vocational training in order that her few years in business may not be unprofitable to her.

3. Provide for the meeting of social groups to which the girl belongs, after she has left school. She needs the stability of her old social groups during her first few years in business, and she finds it hard to retain these contacts unless they are crystallized into an organized club.

4. Give to the most promising girls advice and aid in entering college or in

securing definite vocational training. The junior college, with its emphasis on training for the semi-professions, is one solution. Evening classes or college extension courses may fill the need. The girl should definitely be linked up to some more advanced educational institution before she leaves the hands of her public school teachers. She is young, inexperienced, often shy and she may allow a genuine interest in education to fade away if she does not continue to study from the day she leaves the public school.

WHAT THE Y. W. C. A. AND OTHER ORGANIZATIONS FOR GIRLS MIGHT DO

1. Educationally, take the girl where the public school leaves her, and attempt to assist her to secure further training. The Y. W. C. A. rarely attempts a school program in its educational department, offering rather a wide variety of cultural and recreational courses which appeal to many girls. It is doubtful whether the Y. W. C. A. should attempt a formal educational program. There is an opportunity, however, to test the girl's interests and abilities through the informal courses and then if she has promise to spur her on to enter college or vocational courses given elsewhere. This policy is already followed by many Y. W. C. A. secretaries.

2. Socially, widen the program of the Y. W. C. A. to include young men in some of the activities. In the general survey of Y. W. C. A. activities open to business girls, it was discovered that of 1872 activities (exclusive of the services of room registry and employment bureau) carried on by 148 Associations, only 164 activities were open to men. Many Associations provided no contacts with young men. The highly informal manner in which girls become acquainted with men has been reviewed. Many girls would prefer to meet men under other conditions, but there is at present no

agency which makes a point of bringing men and girls together, other than commercial recreation centers. Mixed activities have proved successful in Y. W. C. A.'s which have provided for them. Dramatic clubs, discussion groups, dances, hikes, teas, all profit by the inclusion of men.

3. Fit the club and class programs as closely as possible to the needs of the girls served, possibly preceding the planning of a program by a survey of the girls' needs.

WHAT THE CHURCH MIGHT DO

1. Have certain services planned on the basis of young people's needs. "Problems of today" and their own personal problems are the things in which young people are interested. The middle class groups from which business girls come are essentially church-going groups and the girls have been in Sunday school and church as children. They stop going to church because as they grow older the church does not meet their needs.

2. Provide for personal contacts with new-comers. The growing use of the church during the week for social purposes is one solution for the isolation felt by strangers.

3. Provide if possible for friendships between young people and adults, trained to understand them.

THE NEED FOR VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND PLACEMENT

The need for vocational guidance is not fully met by existing agencies. The initial task of helping the young person select work and train for it probably rests with the school. Many girls, after a few years in office work, discover new interests and again need advice. They hesitate to leave a permanent position with good salary to enter upon a long period of training and the struggle of breaking into a new type of work, un-

less they have some assurance of a reasonable chance for success in the new field.

There is also need for a new type of employment bureau which could make a better attempt than is usually made to discover the type of work a particular girl can do and then find that work for her. Most girls do not have any definite vocational plan or ambition but drift from job to job, accepting the first opening available. At this point, also, work in guidance needs to be done.

It is difficult to say how such a bureau should be organized and financed. It would require a larger and better trained staff than the commercial employment bureau uses. It should scarcely be connected with the public schools, since much of its work would be with persons out of school for some years.

THE NEED FOR PERSONAL GUIDANCE

The mental hygiene movement has centered attention sharply upon preventing serious personality difficulties through (1) building up in the first instance a well-balanced set of attitudes and habits, and (2) treating difficulties in their early stages before they have given a permanent set to the personality. The school, the Y. W. C. A., and the church are just beginning to make use of clinics and trained psychiatrists, psychologists and sociologists in preventing and in adjusting mental and emotional difficulties. Clinics or trained workers are expensive to maintain. There is, however, a definite service which organizations serving young girls could maintain; they could provide for "talking over" problems of all sorts with girls individually; make sure that their workers are sufficiently well trained to recognize the symptoms of serious difficulties; and have a connection with some psychiatrist or clinic where difficult cases might be referred.

Many serious emotional maladjustments have their origin in small difficul-

ties which, remaining unadjusted, lead to unhealthful attitudes and in time place serious obstacles in the way of normal living. Girls often bottle up within themselves these minor difficulties, not knowing anyone to whom they can talk. Parents are often the last ones to whom the girl will talk, because parents are emotionally tied to the girl and tend to assume as their own any difficulty which the girl has. The girl needs some one to talk with who is disinterested but sympathetic, who can be unemotional and objective, who will not be shocked no matter what is revealed, and who is willing to help the girl re-plan her life. The greater the knowledge of psychology and sociology which this adult has, the bet-

ter. Often the initiative for this process of "talking over" must come from the adult, although it should never be forced. Girls hesitate to reveal themselves, fearing that they will be misunderstood; they must first be assured that the adult wishes to help them.

Church, club, and Y. W. C. A. programs tend to be built on a group basis. This undoubtedly justifies itself in the opportunities for companionship and co-operation. But to the group program should be added means for personal contacts between young people and carefully chosen adults, who have had some training in the technique of interviewing and have some understanding of psychological processes.

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Appendix 1

QUESTIONNAIRE USED AT CAMP GRAY, MICHIGAN, BUSINESS GIRLS CONFERENCE, 1927

You are asked through this questionnaire to cooperate in a careful study which is being made, with the cooperation of the Y. W. C. A., of the problems of young business women. When the study is completed it will be made available for your use.

The value of the study depends upon your frankness in answering these questions. The information you give will be treated in such a way that your identity will never be discovered. You need not sign your name unless you wish to cooperate further by carrying on correspondence with the director. In this correspondence you would give your personal experiences concerning problems and receive confidential replies. If you are interested in this phase of the study, please sign your name and home address. Only about twenty girls will be chosen for this type of correspondence.

This blank should be returned to the person you received it from or to Dr. Ruth Shonle Cavan, The Religious Education Association, 308 N. Michigan Avenue, Chicago.

1. In what city and state do you live?
2. Where were you born?
3. Where was your father born?
4. Where was your mother born?
5. What language besides English is used in your home?
6. In what year were you born?
7. How far did you get in school?
8. Do you live at home?
9. Have you ever been married?
10. What religious denomination do you attend?
11. Are you a member?
12. What business position do you hold?
13. How old were you when you first went to work?

In answering the following questions, please be specific and concise. Answer the questions as they come and do not look ahead. Confine your answers to the period of time during which you have worked, but include situations which arise at home, among friends, at church, etc., as well as where you work.

14. Name several books and magazines you have enjoyed reading during the past year. Why do you like them?
15. What kind of movies do you like best?
16. What kind of plays do you like best?
17. What kind of music do you like best?
18. How and with whom do you usually spend your evenings?
19. How and with whom do you usually spend Sundays?
20. How and with whom do you usually spend holidays?

21. How and with whom do you usually spend vacations?
22. What kind of day dreams do you repeatedly have?
23. What would you do if you inherited \$1000 to spend exactly as you pleased?
24. What hobbies do you have? How did you become interested in these?
25. What would you like to be doing when you are 35 years old? Fifty years old?
26. What things that have happened since you began to work have given you the most happiness?
27. What would you do if you had a year's vacation on pay?
28. What things or situations, since you began to work, have worried you most?
29. What things or situations have led to fear?
30. What things or situations have caused anger?
31. What things or situations have caused you to feel ashamed?
32. What things or situations have disgusted you?
33. What things or situations have given you the "blues"?
34. What things or situations have caused you to feel timid?
35. What serious quarrels have you had since beginning to work? With whom? Over what?
36. Under what conditions do you feel loneliness most?
37. What situations have caused you to wish you were dead, or not born?
38. Do you feel handicapped by health or special physical conditions? How?
39. What important problems have you had to solve since you began to work?
40. Do you feel that you lack anything which would make you really happy? What?
41. What changes if any would you like to make at home?
42. What if anything do you dislike about the places where you have roomed?
43. What if anything irritates you at the office or place where you work?
44. What activities or interests hold you and your girl chum together? Do you ever quarrel with her? Over what?
45. Have you ever been seriously interested in men friends? What happened to the friendships?
46. How many men have you dated with this summer? How often?

47. What church or religious activities do you attend in an average week?

48. Why do you attend the church you do?

49. What things do you really want or need that you cannot afford?

50. What are you doing to better yourself as to occupation or position?

51. What special training or studies are you carrying on?

52. Do you regard your present position as temporary?
53. Do you look forward to being married?

54. What difficulties have you felt in moving from one town or region to another?

55. Have you answered all questions completely and frankly?

56. If not, go back and check the questions upon which you have withheld information.

57. If you wish to correspond with the director about your problems, sign your name and address.

Appendix 2

FACE SHEET FOR GENERAL INFORMATION

1. In what city and state do you live?

2. Where were you born?

3. Where was your father born? Is he living?

4. Where was your mother born? Is she living?

5. What language besides English is used in your home?

6. In what year were you born?

7. How far did you get in school?

8. Do you live at home?

9. Do your father and mother live together?

10. Have you ever been married?

11. What religious denomination do you attend?
12. Are you a member?

13. What business position do you hold?

14. What salary do you earn?

15. How old were you when you first went to work?

16. What is your father's occupation?

17. Your mother's?
- Choose some symbol consisting of two letters and two numbers to be used on all the material you hand in. The use of this symbol will enable us to place together all your work and yet will conceal your identity. Write the symbol down here.

Be sure also to write the symbol down in your notebook or on a piece of paper so you will have it for future use.

Appendix 3

BUDGET AND VOCATIONAL HISTORY SHEET

SOME FACTS ABOUT MYSELF

The purpose of asking for the following information is to discover what things are most important to business girls, for which they are willing to spend time and money; and to learn whether they have had opportunities to secure good positions and needed training.

On some questions you can give only estimates. Use the edge of the sheet for figuring and be as accurate as possible.

You do not need to sign your name. Instead make up a number, as AH92, and use it on all papers filled out for this study. Keep a copy of the number so you won't forget, and write it down here

How I Spent My Money During the Past Year

Clothing	\$
Room
Board
Help at home, aside from room and board
Education, reading
Church, charity
Recreation, amusement
Health, doctor, dentist
Vacations, travel
Savings
Incidental or cannot account for
TOTAL FOR YEAR	\$

How I Spend My Time in a Typical Week

Remember there are 168 hours in every week
Hrs. per week

Sleep
Work
Going to and from work
Meals
Church
School, classes
Exercise, sports
Clubs
Dancing
Movies
Theatres
Concerts, opera
Helping at home
Sewing, care of clothes
Reading

Where and how did you spend your last vacation?

What things do you do once or twice a month, but not every week?

Positions I have Held

Begin with the first position and write them down in order. Please do not omit any.

- Date took job.
- Length of time in job.
- Kind of work.
- How I secured position.

Why I liked or disliked it.
 Why I left.
 Salary.
 Last grade attended in public school was

Subjects Studied Since I Left School
 Subject studied.
 Length of time studied.
 Why I studied it.
 Why I stopped.

Appendix 4

CHECK LIST OF INTERESTS, ACTIVITIES AND PROBLEMS

What are the interests of girls of today?
 What are their problems? Will you help us to find out by filling in this blank?

Check all the things you like or find of interest or think you would find interesting.

Travel
 Church
 Business life
 More education
 Girl friends
 Money
 Reading
 Some new vocation
 Sports (tennis, golf, etc.)
 Help parents financially
 Dancing
 Girls' clubs
 Movies
 Marriage
 Do social service work
 Concerts, opera
 Live at home with parents
 More and better clothes
 Theatres
 Living away from home
 Meeting new people
 Own your own car
 Sewing, embroidering
 Save money
 Bridge
 Automobile riding
 Clubs for men and girls.

Add any interests you have which are not stated in this list.

Now go back and underline the five things in which you feel the greatest interest.

In the following list, check all the things you actually do at least once a month, during some season of the year.

Go to movies with girl friends
 Go to movies with family
 Go to movies with men friends
 Go automobile riding with girl friends
 Go automobile riding with family
 Go automobile riding with men friends
 Sports (golfing, tennis, skating, etc.) with girl friends
 Sports, with men friends
 Hikes, walks
 Theatre
 Visit with friends
 Spend evening at home
 Girls' clubs
 Mixed clubs
 Church services
 Church parties
 Dancing

Parties
 Reading, several hours
 Play bridge
 Sew several hours
 Help mother at home several hours
 Spend evening alone
 Add any other activities you carry on, not stated in this list.
 Now go back and underline all those you do as often as once a week.

In the following list check all the things which have troubled you or been problems for you since you began to work:

Disagreements with fellow-workers
 Disagreeable employer
 Women employers or superiors
 Loss of position
 Finding new work
 Not enough advance in work
 Overworked
 Domineering people at work
 Not appreciated at home
 Home not as well furnished as other girls' homes
 Quarrels at home
 Too much supervision by parents
 Health of parents
 Rooming away from home
 How much to help parents financially
 Homesickness
 Lack of self confidence
 People who make you feel inferior
 Show emotions, temper, crying, etc., too easily
 Meeting strangers
 Need of better clothes
 Religious doubts
 Finding the right church to attend
 Girls smoking
 Girls drinking
 Problems of sex conduct
 Problems of sex knowledge
 Failures in work undertaken
 Lack of girl friends
 Lack of men friends
 Broken engagement
 Not good-looking
 Too large
 Sickness or some physical ailment
 Lack of education
 Lack of money
 Restlessness, can't settle down
 Not enough social life
 Add any problems or trouble you have had, not stated in this list.

Now go back and underline the problems which are still active and unsolved for you.

Thank you.

Appendix 5

BRIEF QUESTIONNAIRE USED AT CAMP GRAY, MICHIGAN, BUSINESS GIRLS CONFERENCE, 1928.

Please write here the same code number used on previous material

In answering the following questions, please be specific and concise. Answer the questions as they come and do not look ahead. Do not spend too much time on any one question. Please confine your answers to the period during which you have worked but include situations which arise at home, among friends, at church, etc., as well as at work.

14. Name several books and magazines you have enjoyed reading during the past year.
21. How and with whom did you spend your vacation last year?
22. What kind of day dreams do you repeatedly have?
23. What would you do if you inherited \$1000 to spend exactly as you pleased?
25. What would you like to be doing when you are 35 years old?
26. What things have happened since you began to work that have given you the most happiness?
27. What would you do if you had a year's vacation on pay?
28. What thing or situations since you began to work have presented problems for you (at home, among friends, etc., as well as at work)?
40. Do you feel you lack anything to make you really happy? What?
45. Have you ever been seriously interested in men friends? What happened to the friendships?
46. Check the number of men you have dated with this summer: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9.
How often in an average week do you have a date? Check—Less than one a week: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9.
47. Check the church or religious activities you attend in an average week:

Sunday school
Morning service
Evening service
Young people's meeting
Club
Church party
Committee meeting
Teachers' meeting
No service or meeting
Other

48. What things do you really want or need that you cannot afford?

50. Check the classes you attended last winter:

Shorthand
Typing
Bookkeeping
English
French
Spanish
Psychology
Music
Art
Cooking
Gym
Name any others:
.....
.....

Underline those which you attended at the Y. W. C. A.

53. In which of the following ways have you secured positions? Check once for each position, thus if you have secured two positions through agencies, check Agency twice:

Friend
Business school
Employment agency
You put an ad. in the paper
Answered an ad. in the paper
Direct application
Through own family or relatives
You were offered the position
Some other way

Appendix 6

OUTLINE FOR INTERVIEW

To the interviewer: Read over the following headings and questions until you are familiar with them. Do not follow the questions slavishly and avoid a question and answer method. Permit the girl to talk freely, but guide the conversation, and interject pertinent questions at intervals.

As soon after the interview as possible and before a second interview is given, write down under the appropriate headings what the girl has told you. Do not try to use the girl's own language unless you remember it clearly.

Write down only what the girl has said, not your own comments or interpretations. There is a section at the end for your interpretation and impression of the girl, which are very important, but should be separated from the girl's own remarks. Use more paper if necessary.

It is not necessary to follow the exact order of topics given here, but try to cover each one some time during the interview.

At the end of the interview, ask the girl for her code number in order that all material

from her may be assembled. Write this at the top of the page.

The following is suggested as an introductory statement to the girl:

"The Y. W. C. A. is cooperating in a study of interests and problems of business girls. This is wanted to give a better basis for our educational program and will also help other organizations to plan activities for girls. Of course we can make such a study only with the help of business girls. Girls in six cities are cooperating in this study and this Y. W. C. A. has been asked to cooperate. The things you tell me will not be made known to anyone else here and the report sent in to Chicago where the material is being assembled will not contain your name. If the information you give is used in detail in the published report of the study it will be disguised in such a way that your identity will not become known. I am sure you can help me with this study. What from your experience are some of the problems of business girls?"

Since this question is general it usually does not elicit a ready response from the girl and should be followed immediately by a specific question, as "What problems are connected with finding work?" The girls tend to answer in terms of their own experience and therefore do not hesitate to make the interview personal. Keep close to the girl's own experience or the experiences of her immediate friends.

1. *The girl's work.* If she has not already done so, have her fill out Form C, or give you the exact information for it. Ask such questions as these: How did you come to choose your present vocation? If you were doing it over again, what would you do? What situations have arisen to make you dissatisfied with your work, or have caused you to leave? What do you look forward to in your present position? Are you satisfied with it? Did you lose friends when you went to work? Have you made new ones? What do your friends and family think of your position? What are your relations with other girls in the office? With men employees? With your employer? Are you ever asked to do anything that conflicts with your ethical standards—lie or do shady things?

2. *Education.* Why did you stop school when you did? Did you want to stop? What are you studying now? Would you like to go on? Do your friends have more or less education than you have? How does this make you feel? If you could go on to school or college what would you want to get out of it?

3. *Friends.* Do you have many girl friends, or just one chum? What interests do you have in common? How and where have you met girl friends? Do you still retain friends made in school? Do you chum with girls from the office? How do you and your friends spend your time together?

4. *Men friends.* Do you have enough friendships with men? Have you ever had a serious friendship with a man? What happened to it? (Try to obtain a chronological account of friendships with men and if possible find out exactly how and where the girl has become acquainted with men.) Do your men friends expect to pet? How do you feel about this? When do you pet and when not? What amusements or interests do you have with your men friends—shows, at home, auto rides, cabarets?

5. *Home.* Are you living at home? How many are there in the family? Are brothers and sisters older or younger? Are you satisfied with your relations to other members of the family? Would you like to make any changes at home? Do you help the family financially? How do you feel about doing this? Do your parents object to any of the things you want to do—parties, dancing, smoking, etc.

6. If the girl is not living at home, find out why she left home, where her home is, what particular difficulties she has had in moving.

7. *Church.* What church do you attend? Do you go regularly? Do you belong to any clubs or classes? Have you had any deep religious experiences? Do your friends go to the same church? Have you religious doubts or longings?

8. What clubs or other organizations do you belong to? How did you come to join them? What do you get out of them? How did you get started at the Y. W. C. A.? Do your friends come here? Have you made new friends through the Y. W.?

9. What are your favorite amusements? What do you do in your free time? Name several books or magazines you have enjoyed reading recently.

10. What troubles have you had, especially about things you want and do not have? What do you feel you lack to make you really happy. What would you do if you had \$1000 to spend exactly as you please? What would you do with a year's vacation on pay? Have you any persistent worries or fears? Have you ever felt rebellious? Do you smoke? Under what conditions? Does your mother object? The same for drinking. Is the girl bothered about questions of sex?

11. Do you have any trouble with your health?

12. *Impression on interviewer.* Describe the girl briefly as to appearance. State your impression of her as aggressive, timid, self-confident; competent and decisive or the opposite; stable or unstable emotionally; inconsistent in her statements and beliefs or with well integrated opinions. If you have information about the girl from other sources, include that here also.

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A YEAR OF RESEARCH—1927

*Some Investigations Published Between January 1,
1927 and January 1, 1928, Bearing upon the
Program of Religious, Educational
and Social Agencies*

By
GOODWIN B. WATSON
and
DELIA H. BIDDLE

THE RELIGIOUS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

MONOGRAPH NO. 4

JULY, 1929

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*Research Department, Home Division, National
Council of the Young Men's Christian Associations*

Religious Education Monograph
Number 4

THE RELIGIOUS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

JULY, 1929

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Foreword

This volume is the fourth in a series of monographs published by The Religious Education Association. Other studies are under way, and will be published, probably, at the rate of three or four a year.

From the standpoint of the Association, responsibility rests upon the Editorial and Research Committees and the Editorial Staff, whose members are listed on the opposite page.

The actual work behind the monograph was done by Professor Watson and Miss Biddle—well over 700 hours of time—on the salary paid by the National Council of the Y. M. C. A. Mr. Jay A. Urice was the responsible representative of the National Council in consultation with the authors.

It is very likely that a summary of research similar to this monograph will be issued annually by the R. E. A.

J. M. ARTMAN.

A Year of Research

Summary of Some Investigations Published Between January 1, 1927, and January 1, 1928, Bearing Upon the Program of Religious, Educational and Social Agencies

THE ENDEAVOR to find truth by scientific investigation is probably the outstanding characteristic of the intellectual life of our century. It has become an almost impossible task for the people who are carrying on the practical, artistic, and personal achievements of our world to keep in touch with the advancing frontier in their fields of interest. In the field of psychology alone a fairly adequate survey of the publications would require the reading of at least 100 pages a day to keep in touch with merely the magazine and periodical literature. This publication attempts the service of bringing together within the limits of one easily read booklet those elements in the findings published during 1927 which may contribute indirectly or directly to the insight of the persons who are carrying on practical educational and administrative activities with other people.

There are four important gains which may come from such a publication. *First*, it may enable administrators, teachers and others to become familiar with the results of studies which are widely scattered, and the original study of which would consume impossible amounts of time. To read the five hundred publications that are summarized in this study would require all of the working hours of the week for at least two months. The *second* aim in this enterprise has been to share the methods and spirit of the research worker. It is hoped that readers will feel themselves somewhat more at home in that attitude toward life which is willing to give long and patient toil for a true answer to even a very minor ques-

tion. *Third*, the way in which different experiments supplement one another, raising a question about earlier findings and sharpening or redefining issues, should prevent the too-ready generalization from any single experiment. It is particularly true, when one has carried on a bit of research himself, that the results of a single study tend to stand out of perspective. Perhaps this more intricate background will help insure the humility which is so truly characteristic of the real scientist. *Finally*, the presentation of this rich array of experimental investigations should be reassuring to those who have suspected that psychology has degenerated into squabbling schools. In the popular magazines there has been some to-do about psychological theories, and probably the best known names are those of persons who have led some sort of verbal onslaught. It may well prove, however, that the genuine advances in psychology will not be found in these devisings, but rather in the steady, solid accumulation of experimental facts. It is particularly true in the field of personality and character that we are at least a generation away from the time when laws and principles about character development can be based upon anything more than personal judgment. Right now the assimilation of experimental results and the attempt to add to them bit by bit constitutes the main responsibility of those who are interested in the development of a science of character building.

The major results are presented in this summary under some thirty topical headings. In this body of the discussion no

attempt is made to summarize every experiment. The annotated bibliography gives the particular results of each investigation. This general discussion will merely hit the high points. The attitude with which the writer has approached each bit of experimental finding has been: "What are the major things that we know now which we did not know before this experiment was made?"

Perhaps, too, it is well to enter a formal disclaimer for the adequacy of this treatment. One cannot give in fifty-six pages a true picture of the contribution made by scientists who have themselves been unable to condense their findings into less than 15,000 pages. It can safely be assumed that (1) some important studies have been omitted through oversight; (2) the importance of some studies has been distorted, the more significant findings being overlooked; and (3) trivial experiments have been given undue prominence because of the prejudices and preferences of the reviewers. It can only be hoped that these sins will prove few, and that the common sense of the reader will prove adequate compensation.

Heredity and Original Nature

Annotated Bibliography numbers 28, 86, 129, 171, 199, 278, 289, 322, 329, 364, 401, 422, 477.

Five studies of this year describe families in which degeneracy or insanity appears so often or with such peculiar coincidence, as for example in the case of twin sisters who had not seen each other for years, that it seems reasonable to conclude that the family relationship is at the bottom of the difficulty. Statistical studies of epilepsy show a connection with alcoholism and certain hereditary taints, although the proportion is not very much greater in these groups than in the normal population. Another study of several forms of insanity shows hereditary taint in about 80 per cent of the families, as compared with heredi-

tary taint in about 70 per cent of families of normal individuals. Mongolian idiots appeared to have a heredity with no more difficulties than the normal. Heredity in the positive direction received more attack than encouragement in a study of the eminent philosophers, very few of whose parents or children achieved distinction. Probably the major positive evidence on the contribution of heredity is discussed in the section on Intelligence.

Three interesting studies of original nature appeared. Experiments on newborn babies showed a variety of taste reactions which were presumably unconditioned. A strange description of children living in a den with a family of wolves indicated a very animal-like development. A provocative experiment has been McDougall's comparison of the ease with which successive generations of rats learned to escape from a maze. Children learned more quickly than did the original generation, and the second, third, and following generations each seemed to learn the task in less time than its predecessors. This is one of the few shreds of evidence left for the old theory that trained parents could pass on part of their skill through heredity. The great accumulation of evidence seems to point in the other direction, although Pawlow has reported experimental results not unlike those of McDougall.

Eugenics

Annotated Bibliography numbers 19, 255, 341, 342, 481, 482, 489.

Whereas Woods finds that the most distinguished Harvard graduates have as many as three children, it appears to be generally true that the correlation between I. Q. and the number of children in the family is negative, perhaps in the region of $-.25$. Willoughby's careful statistical work has shown that this might be true, and still the general level of intelligence in the population might not be

falling if certain conditions of mating obtained. He points out very effectively that we do not know enough to predict certainly the effect of any general eugenic policy at the present time. Popenoe's reports of sterilization in California seem to indicate satisfactory results from the standpoint of social and emotional adjustment. Experiments upon animals have been suggestive of eugenic possibilities. It is possible to bring about very definite alteration in adjustment to such an environment as unusually high temperature. Normal male mice kept almost steadily drunk with alcohol fumes seem to have offspring as normal as those of untreated fathers.

Sex Differences

Annotated Bibliography numbers 6, 246, 260, 466, 470, 486.

The ancient battle as to sex differences and superiorities continues with no clear victories. Whipple, in studying four thousand elementary school children in paper and pencil tests, found girls about seven months ahead of boys in intellectual developments. But most studies, as summarized by Lincoln and Winsor, show no reliable differences. Boys seem to be somewhat better at geometry than girls of equal intelligence; this is quite probably a matter of training. Certainly the observation that women talk more about clothes and men talk more about business, is neither surprising nor evidence of inherent differences.

Racial Differences

Annotated Bibliography numbers 41, 109, 173, 276, 293, 308, 334, 338, 385.

Even on a test presumably fair to different national groups, American Indian children and Mexicans made similar, and low, scores. A test of Italian children showed inferiority, due perhaps to language handicaps. Children in Belgium compared favorably with white children in the United States. Jewish children in

London show the intellectual superiority which has usually been found with that group.

Considerable interest is being shown in the suggestion that it is possible to differentiate racial and national divisions on the basis of blood groups. Distinctions between Chinese and Japanese, Jewish and Russian, have been found valid. Two of the articles are critical of the blood test technique because it is so unreliable, and because within tribes anthropologically similar various blood groups are found, whereas groups serologically similar may be anthropologically different.

Physiological Basis of Temperamental Differences

Annotated Bibliography numbers 31, 50, 53, 80, 106, 108, 122A, 141, 169, 178, 182, 188, 196, 208, 233, 248, 257, 263, 268, 279, 298, 331, 333, 353, 357, 365, 372, 376, 388, 389, 403, 406, 467, 473.

The division of the human race into types has proved a fascinating diversion for speculative minds for centuries. Among the most widely accepted classifications is that of the separation into types on the basis of bodily build. Three of the studies of this year tended to support an earlier finding that dementia praecox is more common in persons of the asthenic temperament (tall and thin), while manic-depressive psychoses occur more frequently in the pyknic (short, thick-set, and roly-poly). Other investigations seem to have been less rewarding. No connection appeared between digestive efficiency and vivacity of temperament. No clear types could be differentiated on the basis of speed of work and quality of performance. Correlations between the physical measurements of college students and a variety of desirable mental and social traits range from .10 to .20.

The glands of internal secretion are often mentioned as significant in per-

sonality and behavior problems, but the exact significance has never been demonstrated experimentally. Post mortem examinations on insane patients reveal no clear connection between the type of psychosis and any abnormalities of the pituitary, thyroid, or adrenal. The evidence for an inadequate sex function in dementia praecox is conflicting. The question as to whether an early sex maturity carried with it precocious intellectual development seems to be answered clearly in the negative by the two studies of this year.

Other factors possibly related to temperamental disorders have been studied, particularly for schizophrenia, that puzzling day-dream type of insanity in which the patient escapes from the world of reality and pays little attention to what is going on around him. Here it seems possible to find some evidence for almost any kind of physiological disorders which the investigator starts out to study. None of the disorders are found in all of the cases. On the whole, schizophrenic patients are more apt than are normal individuals to have an inadequate pupillary reflex, to have close relatives who have had tuberculosis, to have low basal metabolism, an abnormal blood sugar curve, certain chemical reactions in the urine, and an upset of the digestive system tending often toward an acid base.

The importance of keeping the system alkaline, one of the fads of this particular period, was emphasized also by experiments on anxiety, neuralgia, psychoneuroses and stuttering. Psychoneurotic patients tended in one investigation to have unusually low blood pressure. In all of these physiological investigations it has proven impossible, so far, to separate cause from effect. The physical symptoms may bring about the depression, or they may result from it. One interesting case describes the appearance of a skin hemorrhage from what appear to be psychic causes.

A new and promising line of study has been opened up by the accurate description of groups of people whose blood coagulates in one of four different ways. The type of coagulation seems to be unrelated to the type of psychosis, but one extensive study indicates that the chances for developing a psychosis are four times as great for people with one type of blood coagulation as for certain other types.

Epidemic encephalitis is now generally recognized as a disease which may be followed by a series of extraordinary behavior reactions, including irritability, senseless attacks upon other persons or objects, incorrigibility, persistent theft, etc. In one study of over a thousand cases 37 percent died, and of those who recovered 10 per cent to 15 per cent showed these abnormal conduct reactions.

Physical Development

Annotated Bibliography numbers 21, 32, 43, 44, 51, 99, 124, 138, 170, 243, 330, 368, 450.

Excellent tests are being developed in the field of physical education. Rogers has standardized his upon high school pupils. Bliss and Brace each present motor tests of considerable promise. Posture tests have been standardized in this year of work. The only negative point seems to be the emphasis on the unreliability of ratings given by medical examiners. These although widely accepted, seem likely to vary markedly from one examiner to another.

The question of the relationship between physical and mental ability has been often studied. Two investigations by Cozens show no clear relationship, although the posture tests did show a steady increase of school marks for the groups with increasingly better posture. Athletic efficiency was predicted by intelligence scores within a group of athletes to an extent indicated by a correlation of .41, while the reactometer, measuring the ability of an individual to

size up a situation and respond quickly and accurately, showed an even higher correlation.

Among the miscellaneous studies which might be suggestive is one showing a logarithmic relationship between blood pressure and weight, and several on the glands indicating, among other things, the importance of the adrenals for physical energy.

Intelligence

Annotated Bibliography numbers 2, 62, 63, 69, 77, 94, 102, 153, 157, 161, 174, 181, 186, 191, 205, 210, 215, 217, 218, 221, 261, 282, 287, 299, 309, 312, 323, 356, 361, 367, 397, 421, 424, 429A, 451, 455, 468, 483.

One of the most disputed points in the study of intelligence has been the extent to which intelligence test scores are dependent upon inborn nature factors, and the extent to which they can be modified by environmental influences. It has long been recognized that closely related persons have related scores on intelligence tests. Thus one study here reported shows an average difference in I. Q. between brothers and sisters of about 13 points, whereas twins have an average difference of only about 7 points. However, the correlation between siblings has been found several times to be about .50, although Thorndike's article here indicates that it may be as high as .60, using corrected measures.

These data, however, are ambiguous. Was it the child's biological heritage or his home which produced his high or low standing? Several studies of the year afford an answer which is fairly clear. The two best are those by Burks and Freeman. Miss Burks, taking care to control the age at which children were adopted, so that there would be no tendency to put bright children in good homes, found that the correlation between the intelligence of children in ordinary homes with that of fathers and mothers was

.45 or .46, whereas adopted children showed a correlation with the intelligence of their foster parents of only .07 for the fathers and .19 for the mothers. She estimated the difference between a very good home and a very bad home as amounting to about 12 points in the child's score on the Stanford Revision of the Binet.

Freeman found somewhat more influence due to the home. Unrelated children in the same foster home were somewhat alike in intelligence. Siblings raised in different foster homes showed a correlation of intelligence of only about .2, instead of .5. This apparent relationship may have been due to some extent to the placing of children of poor ability in poor homes, and vice versa. A particularly striking case involved two girls from almost unbelievably bad home conditions who, after five years in a very much improved environment, showed improved health, manners, and efficiency, but no change in intelligence scores. Sixty-four other children moved from very bad homes to an unusually good institution, showed no change after a year and a half.

Heilman's mathematics suggest that original nature is four times as important as schooling in determining the individual's intelligence score. Future quarrels in this area can probably be cleared by a careful definition of intelligence. Some would use "intelligence" to mean, by definition, the native ability factor, and would assume that achievement tests could measure it only where there had been a reasonably similar environment. Others would call whatever the tests measure "intelligence," and would recognize that it can be modified slightly by extreme differences in opportunity.

Among other factors influencing intelligence, studies demonstrated that definite coaching on specific materials of the test made large differences, whereas coaching on related material made little difference.

Children recovering from terrible famine conditions showed improvement in intelligence scores, but the adjustment of mild physical defects seemed to bring no improvement. Some studies indicated a slight advantage for children who went to nursery schools and kindergartens over those who did not, but other studies are in disagreement. The same might be said of the factor of language handicap, one of the studies indicating that non-language tests given to foreigners who have been in this country for many years measure the same thing measured by tests involving a mastery of the English language.

There is some demand still for evidence on the question of how good the intelligence tests are. Studies concur in showing an average difference between first testing and second testing of about four points in I. Q. when an individual test is used, and perhaps twice that much if one of the short group tests is used. Some extreme cases can, of course, be found. So far as ability is concerned, studies of gifted children indicate that the promise of a child at 8 is borne out three and even ten years later. Dull and feeble-minded children seem able to learn many useful adjustments in life, but their I. Q.'s show no significant improvement.

From the standpoint of technique, Snedden's suggestion that an intelligence test can be disguised in an interview so that individuals do not know that they are being tested, may offer certain new uses. Wallin's finding that there is no more scattering among abnormals than within the ordinary population is in disagreement with some earlier suggestions. Wilson's important study suggests that differences in I. Q. at the same mental age do not necessarily mean differences in rate or ability at learning several types of simple tests. The ability of individuals to estimate intelligence from physique or photographs has been demonstrated many times to be so erroneous that it seems

wise to abandon any confidence in such judgments.

Tests of Personality Traits

Annotated Bibliography numbers 11, 30, 34, 70, 81, 89, 90, 105, 122, 125, 150, 156, 197, 202, 223, 241, 288, 291, 340, 362, 373, 378, 393, 444, 460, 490, 496, 502.

Several of the studies in this field are directed at correcting an undue optimism about some previously developed tests. It is pointed out, for example, that a variety of tests all supposed to be related to originality show no correlation with one another. The Downey Will-Temperament tests are shown yet again to have many low self-correlations, very low correlations between various forms, and little relationship to the traits they are supposed to measure. An attempt to standardize the Pressey X-0 tests on British children showed that when tests were repeated after a week and after a year, the individuals varied so markedly that the test could not be said to show anything permanent about the emotional life of the individual. The accomplishment quotient, widely recommended to educational supervisors as a measure of the studying efficiency of individuals and classes, seems also to be ready for discarding. It continues to be true that the bright children do the least work, but probably a better measure than the A. Q. will have to be used if the achievement of individuals is to be reliably measured. A like-dislike questionnaire for measuring interests is shown to be a fairly reliable sort of measure, but as for indicating the characteristics of studious pupils it falls into a difficulty which has limited many previous tests for picking out personality characteristics. In one such study it is possible to show a clear relationship between certain interests and certain achievements. Give the same test, however, to another group of subjects and the interests which differentiated the first

time fail to operate the second time! The suggestion of these disappointments is that before any experiment showing that certain likes or dislikes are related to certain life achievements and failures can be taken very seriously, the experimenter will have to show that his results hold, not for one group only, but for many and varied groups.

The toppling of the early idols fortunately does not discourage the makers of new ones. Hence there is a sizable group of new test ideas. Endeavor is made to test sociability by the recognition of photographs; to test social perception in children by asking them to match stories with photographs showing appropriate and inappropriate emotional expressions; to measure resourcefulness of students in a laboratory; to use the electrical current of the body as a measure of anxiety, emotionality, nervous temperament, and magnetic personality; to measure the strength of instincts by the associations which subjects make to words presumably typical of some affection or thwarting of the instinct; and to measure consistency by expecting a child who makes several errors the first time to keep on making several errors throughout his performance. Each of these shows some promise; none is perfected. One experimenter tried out thirty-five tests on high school students, demonstrating that individuals vary among different traits about as much as a group of one hundred people would vary on the same trait. Each person has his strengths and weaknesses in the kind of tests used in this study.

Some of the personality tests have yielded interesting suggestions about trends in human nature. For instance, the tests of reactions to instincts showed some connection between having a high "sex interest" score and having a low score on "disgust reaction." Persons rating high in self-assertion seem to be rated high also in energy devoted to work.

There seems to be a definite connection between many fear tendencies in persons and a lack of confidence or a tendency toward self-depreciation. Men appeared to make higher scores in sex interest, work interest, and self-assertion; women showed more tenderness and more disgust reactions. Another experimenter, by cutting and reassembling photographs, demonstrated that when we size up the emotional reactions of other people we tend to be influenced by the position of the mouth muscles rather than by the expression of the eyes. Two surveys of negativism and contrariness show that this is rather natural behavior in children under four. A study of fifty jealous children showed that the problem cases in which jealousy is involved differ from other problem cases by being more apt to show disturbances of sleep, restlessness, favoritism of the child toward one member of the family, and a generally pugnacious attitude toward life. It is interesting to note that these jealous children are particularly apt to be girls under six years old, particularly apt to be oldest children, and to be from homes where punishment is common.

The tests bearing directly upon ethical and moral standards show improvement both in technique and in the significance of the studies. There are one or two tests which merely set forth a series of questions about why people should do good, or a list of undesirable practices to be ranked in order of badness. A Russian has developed a rather interesting technique of telling stories about good and bad behavior, showing pictures to get the reactions of delinquents.

The Hartshorne-May studies on testing the knowledge of right and wrong appear to be the most significant in this group. They have demonstrated that moral knowledge and judgment is rather definitely a product of being, first, intelligent, and second, from a cultured home. They have laid one spectre which has

bothered many laymen in demonstrating that children do, as a rule, give their own honest reactions on these tests, and do not, when proper techniques are used, try to give "approved" answers which the children do not themselves accept. One of the Hartshorne-May findings attracting widest attention is the utter lack of any relationship (other things, especially intelligence, being controlled) between the general level of moral knowledge in teachers, club leaders, Sunday school teachers, and the general level of moral knowledge in the child. Children taught by moral imbeciles would, apparently, do as well as children taught in these particular situations by moral geniuses. The negative value of knowledge tests in predicting behavior has been indicated by a few findings. If a child thinks a bad action is right and proper he is rather likely to do it; if he thinks the action wrong, he may or may not do it. Perhaps the most significant finding of the study was the demonstration of group codes which make groups more alike in the relationship between their ethical knowledge and their ethical behavior than are individuals in this same relationship. That is, within any given group the boy who gives the best answers may not do the best living, but taking groups by and large, where the ethical answers are good there tends to be a relatively high standard of conduct.

Honesty

Annotated Bibliography numbers 85, 112, 144, 146, 285, 297, 363, 488, 497.

Studies of various forms of cheating in school indicate that 25 percent in a teachers' college, 32, 39, 45, and 63 percent in other groups, took advantage of opportunities for deceptive behavior. Two groups tested by being given undeserved credit showed that 40 to 90 percent failed to take the initiative in reporting undue credit which they might reasonably be expected to have observed.

75 per cent of another group bluffed an answer to a question about which they certainly knew nothing. A test of bluffing or overstatement among four- and five-year-old children appeared to agree very well (correlation .70) with the teachers' estimate of general character.

Investigations of the causes of various forms of honesty and dishonesty were less convincing than studies of the extent of such practices. It is clear, of course, that children's ideas of honesty depend upon the situations in which they have heard the word used; these are apt to be very traditional. Hartshorne and May indicated that there is a tendency for children of the same family to be alike in their tendency to cheat, even when they have grown up along with other orphanage children. Clarke found 56 to 68 per cent of children in daily vacation Bible classes cheating on a peeping test, this being apparently independent of school experience and Sunday school training. Riddle showed that the kind of dishonesty crimes in which individuals are involved depends in part upon their intelligence. Breaking into stores and freight cars is common at the moron level; forgery is higher up in the scale.

Ratings

Annotated Bibliography numbers 3, 211, 225, 239, 240, 305, 359.

No startling developments appeared within this field, which represents in many ways the most practical approach to character measurement. An earlier finding, that the reliability of raters varies greatly, depending on the rater, is again set forth. It is again noted that children tend to rate themselves as possessing desirable characteristics out of all proportion to the probable facts. It appears that constructing scales with the desirable end of the scale always at the right produced just as much discrimination as did a staggered scale theoretically more valid. A limited study indicated that the best

judges of themselves were judged by others to be intelligent, to have desirable emotional attitudes, and to be socially minded. The ones who were most interested in themselves best understood others. The comparison of traits showed that intelligence and industry were very reliably rated, whereas cooperativeness and leadership ability caused a great deal of disagreement.

Perhaps the most practical study is the Mort and Stuart report that a simple five-trait scale will produce the desirable character emphasis quite as well as an elaborate thirty-eight item scale.

Scientific Studies of Mental Hygiene

Annotated Bibliography numbers 57, 95, 116, 190, 204, 213, 253, 294, 307, 327, 407, 415.

Two studies deal with instruments for measuring more accurately the symptoms described in the mental hygiene literature. One is a scale for measuring inferiority which seems to have a reliability of .73. Among college students girls seem to be somewhat more troubled with inferiority than boys, although every one has some such symptoms. The Woodworth questionnaire applied to another group of students showed 10 per cent of the men and 25 per cent of the women making more than twenty-five symptomatic responses. In agreement with some other studies, the students making better grades were slightly more unstable.

Careful studies of emotional maladjustment among college students, comparing the maladjusted group with controls, indicated a greater incidence in the unstable group of such factors as poor health in childhood, little praise at home, few love affairs, nervous parents, and ambitious parents. Another study, illustrated by cases, shows how a desire to keep up with illustrious predecessors, coupled with rather definite limitations in the student, led to breakdown. Studies of children showed a connection between

enuresis and excitement that same evening, and also a slight tendency for the mothers of enuretic children to have been particularly disturbed emotionally during the pre-natal period.

It is encouraging to note that some studies of treatment are replacing the many articles which have been mainly catalogues of symptoms and supposed causes. Dr. Greene's report on 517 girls from New York City high schools showed that among the cases they were able to follow up, about one-third who had received psychiatric treatment were successfully adjusted, and another third might be regarded as partially successful. There is no way of knowing how much of this would have happened without psychiatric treatment. Among the published cases, recovery is shown in one case to follow placement in an excellent foster home; in another, the activity of a "big brother"; in a third, the correction of reading defects. Even dementia praecox patients seem to have recovered under some circumstances, two cases having involved several years of psychoanalytic treatment. It is sobering, however, to note the apparent failure of one nursery school to bring about any change in the "show-off" tendencies of a two-year-old girl with an I. Q. of 132.

Psychoanalytic Studies

Annotated Bibliography numbers 15, 24, 35, 97, 118, 154, 163, 212, 237, 245, 256, 265, 303, 366.

This group of fascinating cases is further evidence that methods of science have so far been little utilized by psychoanalysts. Among the explanatory assumptions may be found the desire to kill the father, to destroy the beauty of the mother, to indulge in cruelty, to die, to escape from unhappiness, to become preoccupied with sexual matters, to punish oneself with painful symptoms for the guilt of oneself or one's relatives, the desire for incest, and for the continuance

of nursing, pampering, and petting by the mother. Other cases emphasize shock from sex attacks, fear of dogs, locomotives, vocational failure, social inferiority, insane relatives, or loss of a lover. Some of these may be important, but it is impossible from the data presented to know whether the interpretation offered for any case is better than any one of several others which might have been offered.

Introversion — Extraversion

Annotated Bibliography numbers 92, 193, 203, 383.

This concept seems to be outlasting its usefulness. A series of a dozen tests of specific psychological abilities failed to show distinct differences between the introvert and extravert types. General differences between men and women in introversion were not obtained in this study, although many specific differences in self-ratings were found. Guthrie found no relationship between introversion as measured by the Colgate scale and introversion as measured by the Jung Association Test. Neither seemed to be related to ability to judge persons or to keep in touch with campus activities. The only promising usefulness appeared in Conklin's study of the relation of introversion to occupational choices; here the introversion scale seemed to function in something the same manner as an interest test might.

Fundamental Nature of Learning

Annotated Bibliography numbers 5, 13, 36, 38, 175, 177, 206, 228, 242, 258, 296, 336, 354, 370, 416, 420, 427, 429, 429B, 439, 442, 445.

The laws of learning have been widely used as a basis for determining the goodness or badness of almost every practice in relation to character building. On theoretical grounds many objections can be raised to the simple formulation proposed by Thorndike fifteen years ago. Recent research, however, tends to indi-

cate the essential validity of those laws as a description of simple learning. One exception may be the law of exercise, Thorndike's recent studies indicating that there is no tendency for a person to make in the last hundred of a thousand practices any more of his more common responses than he did in the first hundred. The so-called law of primacy has also come in for some questioning. One study shows that the first syllable in the list is most apt to be remembered, but there appears to be no clear tendency to repeat in a series of responses the particular one that happened to be made first. The importance of the much disputed law of effect is reinforced by researches of this year. Thorndike and two other experimenters have shown that knowledge of success or failure makes a marked difference in improvement during a series of practices. Related to this principle in some fashion may be the findings that concrete words are remembered better than abstract or nonsense words, and that learning under a condition of muscular tension is more effective than learning in relaxation.

In other sections may be found a discussion of the importance of the innate contribution to intelligence and hence to learning. Here especially attention should be called to Gates' demonstration that schools may appear to bring about improvement in a function by long-continued practice when the real improvement has been due to maturation, and would appear in almost identical fashion in a group that had been given only a few practice experiences.

The conditioned reflex set a pattern for experimentation and was followed up in several studies of this year. Some animals learned to withdraw when a metronome ticked at a given rate; a dog was given a conditioned response of vomiting at a given tone pitch; Bertoff presents a systematic formulation of the results of many experiments on the con-

ditions under which conditioned reflexes are formed, differentiated, or lost.

The Gestalt school is represented mainly by experiments with rats, chickens, and dogs which appear to learn to choose the darker, larger, or lighter of two stimuli, rather than to learn the specific stimulus as a cue. The Gestalt interpretation of the failure to bring about closure might also be supported in some measure by an experiment which showed that subjects interrupted in their work at some tasks were more apt to remember the interrupted tasks than those which had been completed.

Among the miscellaneous studies in learning is found one which shows that the brain localization is not as direct as has been supposed; one which shows interference with conscious learning by an unconscious process suggested during hypnosis; one which shows interference of previous training in learning a new series of connections with the old forms; and one which shows that the influence of variation in the interval between periods of practice is uncertain and probably small.

Transfer of Training

Annotated Bibliography numbers 195, 295, 418, 428, 487.

A large proportion of the disputes with reference to the best educational methods in the development of character go back, fundamentally, to different interpretations of the way in which learning in one situation affects behavior in other situations. So far as general mental discipline is concerned, a second study by Thorndike and others confirms the earlier, very conclusive, evidence that it makes very little difference what subjects a student takes in high school so far as the mental training received is concerned. Bright pupils stayed bright and dull pupils stayed dull. A lesser study reports that pupils spending five to ten minutes a day for four months at learning English vocabulary

can extend their vocabulary more than would be likely to result from two years of Latin.

The new and extraordinarily valuable contributions of the year relate to certain conditions in which transfer does take place. Woodrow and Meredith have separately demonstrated that a group given not only practice but also a consciousness of method can carry over this method into new situations and new material. Memorizing does not strengthen the memory, but one may learn how to memorize more efficiently. The Gestalt experiments, one of which is included here, seem to indicate that for animals as low in the scale as chickens and guinea pigs, the transfer from one situation to another depends more upon the relation of elements within the situation than upon the actual size or color to which response has been made.

Improvement of Study

Annotated Bibliography numbers 47, 48, 121, 184, 231, 254, 345, 346, 371, 375, 474.

With all the generalizations that are made about how people ought to study, there are very few investigations which have taken persons of like intelligence and compared their achievements. The Pressey article is the only one in this year of work which takes care satisfactorily of that point. This shows a definite tendency for successful students to report that they are more apt to review their lessons, more apt to read carefully and take well-organized notes, less apt to skip graphs, tables, and difficult words, more apt to have a regular study place, more apt to try to think out applications of what they read. Several experiments in giving students whose high school achievement or early college freshman achievement has been low special training in study, show that such students can improve in reading ability, in the planning of their daily schedules, and can come up

to average in the grades they receive. This apparently does not happen automatically; at least, students from high schools having supervised study did not seem to be more successful in college than other students were.

In general study technique, Good's comparison of extensive and intensive reading indicates that going over a limited amount of material in slower and more careful fashion is not worth the time it takes. It appears to be generally more useful to read rapidly a larger amount of subject matter.

School Programs

Annotated Bibliography numbers 78, 113, 183, 343, 379.

A summary of the statistics shows an enormous increase in schooling in the United States. High school enrollment in 1880 was 110,000; in 1925 it was 3,650,000. Still, the average schooling for the citizens of the United States seems to be about seven grades. Studies of the objectives mentioned in courses of study show that these schools are ostensibly run to give vocational preparation, to make citizens, to promote health, worthy use of leisure, mastery of fundamental processes, worthy home membership, and ethical character. Presumably, careful investigation of the program of the school would not show curricula or methods specifically organized around such verbal loyalties. Investigation of character education programs in seventy-two cities showed about half of them giving some direct education, together with another 25 percent mentioning some values in extra-curricular activities. Even in the formal school subjects research reveals grounds for serious criticism. Denworth's study showed that the school-subject ability of pupils nine to twelve years of age had a correlation of only .30 with their number of days of school attendance, but of .78 with mental test scores. Popenoe has emphasized the fact that bright pupils

accomplish less than would be expected of them, dull pupils considerably more. Thus we move toward a mediocre standardization.

Studies of the Content of Curricula

Annotated Bibliography numbers 4, 22, 40, 58, 83, 143, 220, 347, 349, 350, 384, 448, 485.

Techniques used in these curriculum studies comprise (1) studies of deficiency; (2) experimental investigations of most efficient techniques; (3) studies of interests and problems; (4) creative enterprises. The first, which has been widely used in public education, is here applied to errors in the mechanics of English composition, illegibilities in handwriting, and ignorance in the social sciences. This technique of discovering and analyzing specific errors has not yet been applied to conduct to an extent that would seem practical. Experimental investigations seem to show that early grades need type as large as eighteen point; that many texts present an extraordinary and unnecessary amount of detail without proper emphasis on review; and that changes in skill, such as type of handwriting, are so costly in efficiency as to make it inadvisable to substitute the new form for the old, even if the new is slightly better.

The interest studies are of more concern to club leaders and those working in character education. The most extensive study is that by Huber and others on the most interesting poems for each grade from I to IX. Another technique in interest study is involved in Bridges' observation of the activities of little children in a nursery school, indicating that they work for an average of eight minutes at a given enterprise. A questionnaire study of problems among women students in college showed that nine out of ten had at least one serious problem, and showed that the college curriculum gave little promise of helping them solve the kind

of problems they were facing. The most promising technique of interest analysis is that which brought into a group of first-grade children a set of jingle-bells, and asked for suggestions as to how they might be used. Under skilful leadership this led to the formation of a band with many sorts of unusual instruments, and an initiation of interest in music which had not been recognized before.

Methods of Teaching

Annotated Bibliography numbers 66, 117, 134, 226, 238, 264, 292, 310, 344, 352, 386, 387, 392, 412, 461, 462, 476, 505.

Four studies represent endeavors to check up on the results of some of the practices of progressive education. In every case the results are favorable. Pupils in a self-directed group came to talk more about their real concerns and less about the discipline of their group. Students allowed to follow a method of individual study in which each progressed at his own rate appeared to excel those participating in the traditional scheme. Students passing through elementary schools organized on this individual work plan excelled in their high school work. Students having a project course in psychology developed more interest in psychology and proved more likely to go on taking further courses in the field.

The investigations on methods of presenting material do not show any great preference for text books, narratives, stories, or general principles, as a method of organizing content. Washburne's series of conclusions on presenting data in round numbers, using bar graphs for relative amounts, line graphs for dynamic comparisons, and questions to bring out particular facts, should be useful to anyone who must formulate reports dealing with quantitative data. Pictures and moving pictures, especially when used in combination with explanations, appear to be preferable to ordinary methods of teach-

ing. Raising a question in advance of reading appears to be a more effective method of getting study focussed. Group rivalry, whatever its personality consequences may be, is apparently distinctly effective in improving a simple skill like addition. It is curious to note that one of the most effective methods reported is the summer vacation. Students appeared to develop more per month when they were not in school at all. Pressey's collection of judgments showed that students believed they learned most when assignments were explained, readings interesting, questions and discussion encouraged, frequent summaries given, when much application was made, when measures were fair, etc.

Supervision

Annotated Bibliography numbers 26, 27, 37, 64, 114, 194, 456, 491, 494, 495.

One study suggests the possibility of observing in objective fashion such factors as the interest of a group; the use made of tests, parents' ideas, and observation of conduct in uncontrolled situations; the extent to which a leader brings into the group significant experiences from the rest of his living; as well as those lesser matters of taste in the arrangement of the room and care of supplies.

That technique in supervision which asks teachers what their problems are appears rather fruitless, as is suggested by the finding that elementary school teachers are most worried about whispering among their pupils and college teachers about obtaining a fluent mastery of their subject matter. A most interesting and useful analysis is that made by Bannells of techniques which might be used in meeting resistance, suspicion, distrust, and dislike on the part of the person interviewed. Attempts to use the opinions of students about their leaders and teachers indicate that these judgments are more reliable and probably better than those made by fellow members of the faculty.

It is interesting to observe the freshmen demanding definite authority, whereas seniors prize originality and humor.

Three methods of measuring the efficiency of processes designed to help teachers are suggested. One is the observation that if tests are given at the beginning of a course of study it is found that about half of the items are already known to the teachers in training, and the course ought not to be given credit for teaching these. A second check comes from the opinions of those who have been supervised. They wish, for example, more chance to observe good work before they themselves are put to teaching, more guidance in what to look for, more planning and comment put in writing, more encouragement and comradeship from those doing the supervising. The most valuable experiment in measuring the efficiency of supervision appears to be that of Brueckner in observing 600 lessons before and after a process designed to improve the teaching of reading had been introduced into the school system.

Administration

Annotated Bibliography numbers 29, 82, 96, 219, 314, 399, 433, 438.

Counts' study of the composition of school boards reveals that the public schools of the United States tend to be under the control of men from the so-called upper classes. Only 10 percent of the board members are women; only 3 percent belong to skilled or semi-skilled labor. He raises a question as to the effect of this control on the policies of education. A very disconcerting result came from Ruch's study of the relationship between costs of public school systems and achievement of the pupils as measured by existing tests. Apparently pupils from Iowa towns which have a high per capita school expenditure do no better work on high school tests or in their university courses than is done by

pupils from communities with a low per capita expenditure. Religious organizations may also find instructive another study emphasizing the ignorance of citizens about their schools, the average citizen knowing only about half of the things that school officials believe it important for him to know.

The growing tendency to put education on a more scientific basis is represented by the establishment of research bureaus in most cities. The director receives a salary between \$4,000 and \$5,000, and is provided with from two to five assistants. Suggestive in method, although not particularly in findings, is South's study of committee performance, in which he found that there was no clear advantage for a committee of six over a committee of three, efficiency varying somewhat with different tasks. Of further interest from the standpoint of method is the ventilation study which showed that there was somewhat less of respiratory disease in the schools when natural rather than mechanical ventilation was employed.

Personnel Studies

Annotated Bibliography numbers 18, 54, 76, 198, 273, 304, 348, 355, 405, 423, 454, 492, 493.

Most of the studies reported have to do with teachers, none in this list having dealt directly with social and religious workers. Intelligence is not usually very closely related to teaching success; perhaps it is somewhat more closely related to success in the practice school than to success later. One study of 31 failures did find that all of them stood in the bottom 10 percent of their classes in scholarship and intelligence. The tests being developed by the Bureau of Public Personnel Studies show a correlation of over .50 with supervisors' ratings. Ratings on traits during practice teaching showed correlations of only .06 in one case and

.23 in another with ratings given by supervisors in the field.

Analysis of the outstanding failures indicated that while college students seemed to rate an instructor's knowledge of subject matter and his skill in instruction above personal qualities, these factors are only 15 to 30 percent as important as personal qualities in accounting for outstanding failures among teachers. A study of sickness showed the average woman teacher absent five days in the course of the year, the average man absent two or three. Better health records were found among persons over thirty, among unmarried women and married men.

Investigation of the training of teachers showed that if courses in economics, sociology, and political science were all required in order to be a well-qualified high school teacher of social science, from a third to a half of the present group would be disqualified. It is recommended that Ph.D. candidates be given courses in education and that statistics be regarded as more important than knowledge of other foreign languages.

Taylor's study raises an interesting question about the importance of the success ratings given to teachers. If pupils alike in ability be tested at the beginning and end of the year, it is found that the correlation between achievement and the supervisor's rating of the teacher is only about .15, whereas the factor of pupil intelligence, other things being equal, has a correlation of .30 with improvement in arithmetic, and .60 with reading progress. Studies in other years support this suggestion that it is safer to measure a product than to estimate the ability of the producer.

School Success

Annotated Bibliography numbers 7, 20, 33, 45, 84, 87, 91, 107, 137, 145, 172, 192, 216, 232, 234, 272, 277, 280, 286, 316,

317, 318, 319, 325, 332, 335, 351, 400, 443, 449, 469, 484, 499.

One of the phases of personal development in which parents are most concerned is that of having pupils get along well in their educational work. The first assumption of almost every investigator is that intelligence tests ought to be able to tell how well pupils can get along in school. So many articles have compared intelligence scores with college grades that it is becoming almost a joke, and a stale joke. The correlations in the ten 1927 articles do not differ appreciably from all those that have gone before, ranging somewhere between .30 and .60. On the basis of high school grades it is usually possible to predict college success a little bit better than it is with intelligence scores, although a combination of both is better than either one alone. There is some evidence that bright pupils from public high schools do better work in college than do students trained in private preparatory schools. It also seems to be true that the subjects studied in high school matter relatively little so far as college success is concerned. The traditional academic preparation is less important than college entrance examinations would lead one to believe. It may well be that Pressey's finding that about one college freshman in five is below the eighth grade norm in arithmetic and reading comes very much nearer to getting at the significant factors in college failure.

The next item which is often taken up for consideration in school success is the amount of time spent in study. Here the results are generally surprising. The better the student the less the time spent in study. One careful survey of achievement in elementary schools showed seven-month schools achieving as much as eight-month schools, if pupils were of like ability, and showed pupils absent more than a day a week getting along as well as pupils who were seldom absent.

Among other activities, investigation of the effect of outside employment seems to indicate that working pupils are not more likely to fail than those of similar intelligence who are not at work, but the workers are less likely to win honors. Fraternity and sorority members tend, on the whole, to get grades slightly superior to the average of the campus, as shown by a study of ten colleges. Another study showed a tendency toward success among pupils having foreign-born parents, and also among pupils whose brothers and sisters went to college. Pupils in elementary schools who win the best grades tend to be younger than their class average, somewhat freer from physical defects, and more likely to be members of clubs. The physical handicap of deafness has been shown to be accompanied by much retardation. Schools for the deaf are beginning to face up in admirable fashion to this less successful education.

Case studies and tests which endeavor to get at emotional factors have been used to a very limited extent in this year of research. Students above the norm in intelligence who are college failures are apt to show lack of interest, temperamental defects, physical and social handicaps. One author finds that boys and girls sent to college against their wishes are seldom successful. Application of the Colgate tests showed that good college marks are most apt to be given to intelligent introverts. Strangely enough, the number of psychoneurotic symptoms admitted among the good students is generally larger than the number admitted by the less successful students.

Adult Learning

Annotated Bibliography numbers 119, 133, 149, 419.

Anticipating in some measure the more extensive work of Thorndike, these studies indicate an increase in mechanical ability up to about age 26. A study of

masterpieces indicates that they occur usually in the forties and fifties; 85 per cent of the famous men reviewed have made significant contributions after they passed the age of fifty.

Parental Attitudes

Annotated Bibliography numbers 152, 155, 179, 187, 250.

It is, of course, to be expected that children from homes of high economic status will show a better cultural and behavior pattern than is found in children from tenement homes. It is significant, however, that children from tenement homes were generally superior in independence and ability to take care of themselves. Foster and Anderson's careful study of 118 children two to seven years of age reveals that each child is a problem in two or three areas, the boys rather more so than the girls. It is interesting to note the predominance of problems related to feeding and to fatigue, with less prominence than might have been expected for the areas of fears, dependence, sex irregularities, and over-developed imagination. Another interesting study confirms the trend of recent years in emphasizing the fact that the only child has fewer emotional problems than are found in children from large families. Oldest children seem to be most seriously handicapped. In this particular study of Goodenough's they were shown to lack aggressiveness and self-confidence, as youngest and only children did not.

Studies of Social Problems

Annotated Bibliography numbers 39, 67, 72, 75, 135, 162, 214, 267, 274, 306, 326, 398, 453, 475, 503, 504.

A most significant study for program is that made by Hockett in determining what issues are most frequently set forth by pioneer thinkers concerned with the future of our American civilization. A rough check by the reviewer suggests that any Y. M. C. A. secretary, minister,

school teacher, or text book writer who tried seriously to interest young people in a genuine study of any one of eleven out of the fifteen issues that are mentioned in the abstract, would promptly be branded as a dangerous person in the average community. If this seems unduly pessimistic, let the experiment be tried.

A few studies, one of them involving the biographies of 1600 radical leaders, increase our knowledge of the reasons why people become critical of the existing order. The greatest vote for radical candidates appeared in the least prosperous counties of Minnesota. There seems to be no tendency for radicals to be bred in the cities or in the country particularly, but there does seem to be a definite tendency for them to have a background of foreign parentage. An unusually small percent, only about one out of five, of the radical leaders have come through a college education. Does this cast doubt upon the ability of these leaders, or upon the social and critical adequacy of college training?

Three studies deal with social problems in relation to mating, one being a mildly interesting report showing twice as many marriages in June as in February or March, but a constant rate of conception for the various months of the year. A more thought-provoking article reports that the preponderance of females over males brought into relief by the war deaths has grown worse instead of better. Studies of divorce in the United States show a little more than one divorce for seven marriages, about three divorces in a year for each thousand of the population. In some cities, notably Cleveland, Denver, and Atlanta, the ratio of marriage to divorce is only two to one.

Three of the problems which find most space in the press are not quite so serious when examined statistically. Insanity, apparently, is not increasing, when proper control is made of the factors of immi-

gration, better diagnosis, and the like. Suicide is decreasing rather than increasing, although there appears to be evidence that more intelligent and more highly educated persons have a higher suicide rate. The figures on alcoholism are interesting in showing that increased drinking is not primarily a symptom of prohibition. Much the same drop during the war and much the same rate of increase in drinking since, is found in European countries where no prohibition law has complicated the situation.

A study of young employed girls seems to be significant primarily because of the indifference which it reveals on the part of the girl toward her job. Apparently the fact that half of these girls attend the movies more than once a week is an expression of a need to find something more worth while than modern industry offers to young employed girls. It seems definitely not to be true that the girls who want to go on to school have plenty of chance to do so, pleasing as this fancy is to the American orator.

Two careful studies of emigration from rural areas show that the city is still drawing the best of the rural population, although most of the migrants come from the farms which are having hard sledding financially.

Social Attitudes

Annotated Bibliography numbers 88, 110, 115, 147, 160, 209, 224, 249, 302, 320, 358, 432, 441, 459, 465, 479, 498.

The most extensive study is that of attitudes toward the Orient, fostered by the Institute of Pacific Relations and published under the title "Orient and Occident." A diverse sampling of three thousand interested people in various geographic and economic sections revealed a happily friendly attitude toward the aspirations of the Chinese, Japanese, and other Pacific peoples. There was a widespread agreement that courses in Oriental history ought to be offered in our sec-

ondary schools. There seemed to be a general willingness to admit that the United States has been ungracious, possibly unwise, in its treatment of the Japanese. This liberal attitude tended to be more characteristic of certain social groups, for example, students, than of others. So far as causes of it are concerned, it was quite clear that social and economic factors were more important than geographic ones, the California population differing from the rest of the United States less than is sometimes supposed. The more liberal attitudes were found, in general, among those who were best informed and who read a good many magazines, particularly liberal magazines.

This study agrees with two others reported here in finding a marked difference between those who have several Oriental friends and those who have none. Travel has an uncertain influence, although one study suggests that it may be more important in producing friendliness than knowing the language of the people. A study of the effect of a given course in sociology upon race prejudice indicated that it was much easier to get acceptance of general principles than to get specific readjustments.

The very great significance of the general social environment in which children grow up is indicated in an interesting comparison between the children of the Soviet and children in the United States. Here, banking, the professions, and manufacturing are most respected. There, ministers, factory managers, and store keepers rate far below political servants, teachers, and peasants, the last named heading the list. General radicalism and conservatism is still a moot question. One study showed about one-half of the radicals making consistently radical answers throughout fields of international, religious, economic, and racial dispute. Simple psychological tests like mirror drawing and free association fail, as might be ex-

pected, to differentiate the conservative from the radical temperament.

Two studies have been made of teachers' attitudes, one showing teachers in Indiana generally favoring obedience to parents and to law, particularly the prohibition law, and opposition to smoking. Coe's more pointed study shows an almost unanimous opposition among competent experts in secondary education to proposals for military training in high school.

Studies of the attitudes of high school students themselves are most disheartening. One study in seven widely distributed high schools showed an incredibly large proportion of the students feeling that no patriot ought to criticize the United States or admit any nation to be its superior in any respect; that a large army and navy is necessary; that Mexico should be conquered; and that in the forefront of organizations working for world peace one might put the Ku Klux Klan. Studies of their ideas of citizenship reveal an emphasis throughout upon being quiet in the halls and keeping paper off the floors, with almost no mention of the importance of initiative, leadership in activities, studiousness, and trustworthiness. Asked to choose leaders, most pupils mentioned men rather than women, and political or military leaders rather than leaders in industry, recreation, or world thought. A test of superstition showed the average high school pupil agreeing with about one-half of the statements scientists believe untrue. The largest number of these concerned mental discipline and what they themselves were getting out of education.

Thurstone made the only significant contribution of the year to technique, this being the first of a series of articles in which the business of scale building has been much more carefully elaborated. So far as the content of this study is concerned, one might raise a question about the responses which seem to include boot-

legging among the minor crimes and abortion among the major crimes. Laswell's "Propaganda Technique in the World War" is one of the first of a series of several books which have given us a perspective upon the attempt to mislead the public in the interest of victory. Such techniques as that of getting comments from prominent persons, of "Satanism," in which the enemy is made out to be an inhuman and murderous aggressor, or of extending the "we" group, in which process neutrals and all civilized and educated persons of all time are shown to be aligned with the cause, are not confined to propaganda in war time.

Studies of Religious Ideas and Attitudes

Annotated Bibliography numbers 14, 25, 65, 159, 283, 391, 402, 413, 447.

Three opinion studies in three different colleges show that 75 percent of students in one small church college, 50 percent of the students in a western state university, and about 25 percent of students in several eastern colleges believe now what they were taught in Sunday school. The belief in immortality for the schools ranged 75, 55 and 45 percent. In one college over one-half of the group retained a naive acceptance of miracles. In another study less than 20 percent conceived of God as personal. It is obviously going to be difficult to generalize about students' religious attitudes until much more extensive studies have been made. The existing data do make it clear that students can go through some universities with a fundamentalist viewpoint unshaken.

For the most part, the studies of this year are rather disconcerting to persons interested in the work of religious organizations. Of junior high school pupils who repeated the Lord's Prayer daily at school, less than 25 percent could write it correctly. A study of students who rated themselves as mystics compared

with other students who rated themselves at the other end of the scale, showed the mystics more suggestible, less intelligent, not so well coordinated, and more easily upset.

A comparison of students from Iowa homes where a thorough religious training was given showed that these students differed from students without religious home training by carrying on more church activities and by showing more tendency to be morbidly conscientious; and that they are no more likely to be honest or dishonest in examinations, are not different in moral judgments, are slightly less intelligent, and considerably less studious. A study of "Who's Who" showed the Unitarians far excelling other groups in the proportion of distinguished persons, but indicated that not more than a third of the leaders in science or artistic achievement claim affiliation with any church.

Miss Brun's study in religious education is suggestive of a very useful procedure. Fifty case studies were made of pupils who had dropped out of Evangelical Sunday schools. These seemed to indicate that the responsibility lay primarily upon a poor type of social classification in Sunday school; pupils dropped out because they did not like the group with which they were supposed to meet. A secondary factor which apparently contributed was the uninteresting quality of the curriculum materials. Teachers, methods, buildings, and general administration seemed entirely satisfactory.

Studies in Dependency

Annotated Bibliography numbers 49, 55, 126, 235, 301.

With studies of dependency, as with studies of delinquency, the inadequacy of the home stands out above almost any other factor. Probably homes broken by death or separation are more important in producing our social problems than most of the so-called "evil influences."

At the same time the dependents, like the delinquents, tend to be a group of innately low intelligence. Low intelligence itself, however, is increasingly shown to be a predisposing but not a certain cause. Some feeble-minded patients are law abiding, self-controlled, and socially useful. Some retarded children, given superior home placement, make very satisfactory social adjustments.

Studies of men out of work and persons discharged from jobs indicate increasingly the importance of satisfactory personality development. If in a study of over four thousand cases it appears that the group discharged because of lack of character is almost twice as large as the group discharged because of lack of technical competence, the task of educational agencies is redefined. Any school which endeavors to produce individuals who will be vocationally successful might, apparently, give more time and attention to adequate social adjustment in comparison with technical information.

Delinquency and Crime

Annotated Bibliography numbers 12, 42, 52, 56, 61, 74, 101, 180, 227, 230, 266, 284, 321, 369, 382, 411, 430, 437, 478.

Appearance in court is often chosen as a basis for selecting groups to be studied, partly because it is easy to define objectively, and partly because it represents a sufficiently serious defect in character for society to have taken recognition of it.

Studies of criminals have fortunately been based on large groups, but the results are not very illuminating. About 40 percent in a group of one thousand Los Angeles offenders appear to have gone beyond grammar school in education; three-quarters of them were American born, over one-half of them having been in service during the war. Economic need is apparently related to crime, about a quarter of the white burglars of Texas being irregularly employed. The average criminal there went to work at age eleven.

Correlation of crime with weather is an interesting variation; apparently most of the crimes in Japan take place in hot or windy weather. The average period of sentence for one group appeared to be about four years, while other studies cast some doubt on the social training that goes on during these years.

One of the first questions arousing interest so far as juvenile delinquency is concerned, is the matter of intelligence. Delinquents seem to be brighter than they used to be. This is probably due to better care for the feeble minded, leading toward constructive citizenship for many. Relatively few children of superior intelligence are found in the delinquent groups. It takes many more social handicaps to make a delinquent out of the bright boy than out of the dull boy. It probably is true that the dull normal child is the most neglected individual in our civilization.

The attempt to find tests which will show up the character of delinquents is seldom successful, partly because some of those who do not get caught are quite as bad as those who do. The most promising attempts appear to be tests of suggestibility and of emotional instability. Analysis of cases shows delinquency related to compensation for inadequacy such as dullness, physical handicaps, economic inferiority, mistreatment at home, and the like. Delinquency for excitement and self-display is more common at the lower intelligence levels.

The school is revealed as defective in many of the delinquency studies. Most delinquents were first truants; many of them were misgraded. It is interesting to observe that there is a definite tendency to give bright children who cause trouble lower marks than are given to dull children who are also troublesome. This may represent the teacher's irritation. Truancy appears to be most common with boys 13 to 15 years of age. Misbehavior in school was found in another study

most common with boys 8 to 9 years old. Is there no adequate explanation for the curious fact that practically all the misbehavior, truancy, and delinquency problem cases are boys?

Girls do come in as factors when the matter of sex delinquency is investigated. Two studies of the unmarried mother show most of them under 21, generally of dull normal intelligence, about a quarter being feeble minded, although there is an unusual number of bright girls at the younger ages. Sex delinquency may be associated with precocity in development. The typical delinquent girl finished only the grammar grades, came from a broken or inadequate home, and has little interest in outdoor sports, but attends public dances.

Thrasher's study of 1,313 gangs of Chicago is perhaps the most significant study in this field. It is not primarily a study of delinquency, although about half of the gangs seem to be bad. Of particular interest is his demonstration of the relationship between gang formation and certain "interstitial" areas of the city which lie between down-town business sections and fine residence sections. Some of the old dogmas concerning the gang age fail to live through this study. There is no particular age for ganging, and within the same gang there may be a very wide age range. The interest of gangs in club houses and the success with which bad gangs have been made over by excellent club work, is very encouraging to the institutional approach to the city boy. A minor study of girl gangs shows that this phenomenon is not entirely confined to boys, although the activities of the girls seem to be centered primarily in the more innocuous amusement of teasing other girls.

Sex Problems

Annotated Bibliography numbers 9, 59, 71, 79, 93, 111, 127, 136, 275, 328, 377, 395, 396, 457, 480.

The only direct study is that made by Katherine Davis with her questionnaires to a thousand unmarried and a thousand married women, showing that nine out of ten while unmarried had a recognition of sex desire, with some overt adjustment in more than one-half of the cases. A case study of sixty-nine young business women showed that 90 percent were looking forward to marriage, but many had failed to carry through promising love affairs. A study of menstruation showed marked pain for about one woman in three, with some rise in blood pressure and loss in efficiency at the beginning of the period.

Seven studies in the sex activities of animals serve to demonstrate the relationship between sex indulgence and increased growth, increased hunger, decreased spontaneous activity. Sex drive appears to be stimulated more by external stimuli for the male, by internal stimuli for the female. Studies of embryos show that sex characteristics are fixed almost from the time of conception. Sex development is facilitated by the ovarian, placental, and pituitary hormones. A promising lead is that which has shown the ability of the serum from young animals to develop antibodies which check the protein poisons associated with senility. Briffault's work, perhaps the most scholarly reference in the entire list, demonstrates that Westermarck and others have erred in believing that promiscuity was not widely prevalent in other civilizations. Briffault's research points to the devising of our present sex and family institutions largely in the interests of women.

Tobacco and Alcohol

Annotated Bibliography numbers 128, 148, 200, 339.

The trend of modern evidence seems to be in the direction of discounting the serious effects so much emphasized in the studies of a generation ago. The most

pronounced effect of tobacco seems to be an increased pulse rate and a slight reduction in steadiness; mental functions may even be facilitated. The hereditary effects of alcohol seem to be due not so much to the alcohol as to some hereditary defect which led to the alcoholism in the first place.

Recreational Activities

Annotated Bibliography numbers 1, 23, 98, 167, 229, 251, 252, 313, 374, 414, 425, 426, 440.

Lehman and Witty's many articles are based upon a single study reported in their book, "The Psychology of Play Activities." Data were collected by questionnaire from about six thousand young people. The most frequent and best liked activities for each age may be found in the manual for the Lehman test.* These should be distinctly helpful in building a program which is supposed to appeal to a given sex and age. Among the general findings it is interesting to note the predominance of reading. Reading newspapers, reading "funny" papers, reading books and magazines, stood high in almost every group. Among games baseball is no longer, if it ever was, the major sport interest. Basketball and football distinctly surpass it. Some importance should be attached to the definite overthrow of the old assumption that certain play interests appear at certain ages rather abruptly, and die out rather quickly at other ages. The religious activities found themselves in rather an unflattering position in this study. They were generally rated low in interest, and particularly low by the most intelligent children.

Other studies show the importance of the movies, attendance of several times a week being not uncommon. Among movies there seems to be a definite preference for comedies and for pictures in-

volving a good deal of action. Attendance at movies is greatest over the week-end, least on Monday.

The part which the school is playing in the recreational life of pupils is becoming increasingly apparent. One study showed that the average high school pupil belonged to two or three organizations outside the school, and to two or three in school. A school which tried giving an hour of its regular time for group activities found 90 percent of the pupils enthusiastic over the values received. High school pupils apparently want to manage their own social affairs, and seem generally to wish for high school fraternities. Being in the same class at school is a more potent factor in influencing selection of chums than is neighborhood, age, height, weight, or intelligence. The old theory that activities interfere with success in school work is not borne out by studies in this and preceding years. On the whole, athletes equal or excel the non-athletes in intelligence and in school grades. Phi Beta Kappa students differ from the average student, not primarily in time spent in study, but in time given to extra-curricular enterprises.

Vocational Guidance

Annotated Bibliography numbers 16, 17, 100, 139, 151, 158, 165, 166, 207, 236, 244, 269, 270, 271, 337, 380, 394, 404, 408, 409, 410, 446, 506.

Among the factors making for success in vocation are interest, ability, training, and perhaps certain factors in career planning. The most important factor in income, scarcity, has not appeared in the studies covered. Interest has been studied particularly in Strong's test. He has demonstrated that successful men in one field often have interests which would make them likely to succeed in other fields. At the same time the interests of executives, accountants, bankers, and life insurance salesmen seem to be distinct

*Lehman Play Quiz, sample set of test and manual, \$0.85. Published by Association Press, 347 Madison Avenue, New York City.

from those of artists, ministers, doctors, authors, and lawyers.

A study of the interests of junior high school pupils shows that they are likely to be rather stable, changing little during the two or three years of early adolescence. It appears that vocational choices are most apt to be made at around fourteen years of age, although more intelligent persons are apt to defer this decision. Interest has, however, certain limitations. Most pupils think they do better than their grades demonstrate in subjects which they most enjoy. Many are interested in vocational choices which require intelligence above their own ability. A study of choices indicates that pupils do not often choose their fathers' jobs, but they do, except for certain romantic choices, choose vocations with which they have had some experience in their own environment. The occupations most respected seem to be those of engineers, physicians, and professors.

Ability factors have been studied with several new instruments. One is the MacQuarrie test of mechanical aptitude, which seems to get at some rather innate abilities. The Stanford Test of Scientific Aptitude has proven very promising in the selection of graduate majors in the physical sciences. A study of trade tests indicates that a rating of the processes of the worker yields a more dependable prediction of future competence than does a rating of his product. Three studies of liability to accidents indicate that tests of blood pressure, health, muscular control, and intelligence all seem indicative of ability to avoid accidents.

A study of the graduates of an eastern college over a period of thirty years shows that the top 40 percent of classes in scholarship have three times the chance possessed by students in the lower 40 percent to obtain distinction by a vote of their classmates, or by inclusion in "Who's Who." Winning Phi Beta Kappa was

twice as significant as receiving athletic awards in prediction of success.

Statistical Techniques

Annotated Bibliography numbers 130, 131, 132, 222, 247, 281, 311, 324, 360, 431, 434, 435, 436, 471.

The most frequent type of study has been that which devises some method of computing or checking with greater facility one of the commonly used statistical measures. Among these we find techniques for simplifying the calculation of the standard deviation by using several origins, charts for checking intercorrelations, tables and graphs for predicting correlation over a wide range, for calculating the probable error and the mean standard error of proportion, techniques for converting test scores into larger or smaller series, keeping the relationships constant within the series, and for computing correlation coefficients without plotting.

More critical investigations include an experiment showing that there is a tendency to mark the upper one of two suggested answers; an experiment indicating that reliability for half a test may sometimes equal or exceed the reliability of the whole test; a check confirming the validity of the Spearman-Brown formula over a range of 2 to 13; a study of correlations among ratios; and Thurstone's important demonstration that the Cattell-Fullerton theorem, which is the theoretical basis upon which many scales are constructed, must take account of another variable that has not heretofore been included. Perhaps the only article in the list which would be of interest to the lay reader is Whipple's summary of eleven errors frequently found in reporting research studies.

Border-Line Phenomena

Annotated Bibliography numbers 46, 164, 262.

Some of the most fascinating questions of psychology lie in the realms of what is popularly thought of as psychic influences. There is, for example, the ability of individuals to wake up at a given time, which many have noted but which no one has satisfactorily explained. There is a possible influence of hypnosis in producing menstruation or premature delivery, which suggests the strong relationship between mental suggestion and physical behavior. A collection of studies on psychical research show twelve distinguished persons believing that some such phenomena do exist, only two denying them. Differences in the method of explaining such phenomena are, of course, to be expected for some years.

Summaries and Reviews

Annotated Bibliography numbers 8, 10, 60, 68, 73, 103, 104, 120, 123, 140, 142, 168, 176, 185, 201, 259, 290, 300, 381, 390, 417, 452, 458, 463, 464, 472, 500, 501.

Twenty-eight of the articles represent summaries of investigations carried on by others. There seems to be so much to be known that summaries and summaries of summaries follow as a necessary consequence. Among the most outstanding of these summaries are: one on

intelligence and school achievement, involving 239 articles; one on ovarian and placental hormones, involving 217 previous studies; one on personality studies, referring to 189 sources; one on the development of skill leading back to 153 investigations; one on tests of personality and character involving 150 references during 1926.

Among the other summaries which may be of unusual significance for those interested in character development are summaries on the relationship of tobacco to physical efficiency, social relations of children, criminology, musicality, effects of alcohol, relative value of praise and censure, feeling and emotion, transfer of training, social psychology, and a summary of investigations on sex differences. Perhaps special mention should be made of a bibliography of bibliographies which is now being offered.

From these summaries more surely than from any other portion of the year's output there arises for ambitious scholarship the sense of defeat, bewilderment, confusion, and submergence. It seems so important and so impossible to know everything. A vague unrest is born, akin to that of the ambitious child who realizes for the first sad time how far his dreams have exceeded mortal possibilities.

Annotated Bibliography

1. ABBOT, MARY ALLEN, A Study of the Motion Picture Preferences of the Horace Mann High School. *Teachers' College Record*, April 1927, 819.

This study of 286 boys and 273 girls in New York City, just after Christmas, showed only 11% of the boys and 13% of the girls not attending any shows during Christmas week. The median child went to the movies three times and to theatre, opera, or concert twice. Boys preferred comedies, and were more concerned with production techniques. Girls liked romances of girl heroines. Both demanded action, but were impatient of exaggeration in story or action.

2. ABELSON, H. H., The Improvement of Intelligence Testing. *Teachers' College Contributions to Education* No. 273.

205 items from five intelligence tests were evaluated against a criterion score made up of the optimum combination of quantity points and quality points earned in scholastic grades by freshmen in the College of the City of New York. Reliability of the criterion was .56. Weighting items in accord with the criterion score method gave results that with two tests were slightly favorable to the new technique, with two tests slightly against it, and with two others markedly against it. The evidence indicated that the language completion type excelled the other types of intelligence tests, while the information type was poorest.

3. ADAMS, H. F., The Good Judge of Personality. *Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology*, 1927, 22, 172-181.

A study of self-ratings and ratings of others made by eight groups of ten girls each. Those who judge themselves well are rated as unusually intelligent, possessing desirable emotional attributes and being socially minded. The best judge of others tends to be rated by others as cold-blooded and egotistical.

4. ADAMS, JESSE E., Reactions of High School Pupils to High School Subjects. *School Review*, May 1927, 354.

Questionnaires sent to 70 Kentucky high schools yielded 4,739 returns. Mathematics and Latin were found responsible for 63% of all failures. Nearly two-thirds of all failures occurred during the first year. Pupils favored omission of geometry, algebra, and Latin. Best liked subjects were agriculture and home economics. Subjects desired but not available were typewriting, shorthand, bookkeeping, domestic science, manual training, French, Span-

ish, and chemistry. Nine or ten times as many girls as boys planned to teach. Correlation between "easy" subjects and "best liked" subjects was .68.

5. AGAR, W. E., Regulation of Behavior in Water-mites and Some Arthropods. *Journal of Comparative Psychology*, February 1927, 39.

Water-mites show increased activity in unusually hot or cold water, thus by trial and error escaping the discomfort. They seem unable to learn, as will fresh-water crayfish, to follow a path of escape by choosing a right hand turn and avoiding a left hand turn.

6. AIKINS, HERBERT AUSTIN, Women and the "Masculine Protest." *Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology*, 1927, 22, 259.

In a class of 18 college girls 15 admitted feelings of inferiority and inadequacy in past or present, but none believe it connected with, or peculiar to, their sex.

7. ALDERMAN, G. H., Failures among Freshmen. *Journal of Educational Research*, 1927, 16.

A study of 89 freshman failures indicated that mental ability was not a major factor. In 90% of the cases of boys and girls sent to college against their wishes, success was doubtful.

8. ALLEN, C. N., Studies in Sex Differences. *Psychological Bulletin*, 1927, 24, 294-304.

A review of recent literature (74 titles) including studies of mental and physical differences between the sexes. Certain investigators find a greater memory ability in women, and a difference in conversational interests, but for most other traits as well as for variability within each sex, the results are conflicting. The differential social training of the two sexes remains a heavy factor.

9. ALLEN, E., The Menstrual Cycle of the Monkey, *Macacus Rhesus*: Observations on Normal Animals, the Effects of Removal of the Ovaries and the Effects of Injections of Ovarian and Placental Extracts into the Spayed Animals. *Carnegie Inst. Publ., Contributions to Embryology*, 1927, 19, No. 98, 1-44.

The frequent injection of ovarian and placental extract produced typical menses, and return of organs to normal growth.

10. ALLEN, E. & DOISY, E. A., Ovarian and Placental Hormones. *Physiological Review*, 1927, 7, 600-650.

A review of recent literature. Bibliography of 217 titles.

11. ALLEN, ELEANOR A., Temperamental Tests. *British Journal of Medical Psychology*, VII, 4, 391.

Sixty-four university students were given a word reaction test (reliability .32; based on time required to give a personal attitude toward words indicative of one of the McDougall instincts), an emotional values score (reliability .28; based on subject's estimates of his emotional reaction to each of the words mentioned above), a questionnaire prepared by Flugel to cover traits related to these instincts (reliability .62; typical questions "Do you enjoy your food?" "Have you often been in love?" "Have you confidence in your own judgment?" etc.) and the Pressey X-O Test (reliability .47). Ratings by two friends on similar traits showed an intercorrelation of .50. Intercorrelations of tests for each trait, and of tests with ratings were all below .50. Questionnaires and ratings were best, yielding coefficients of .41 to .49. A correlation of —.51 on the questionnaire and —.52 on the reaction test between "sex interest" score and "disgust" score suggests a possible compensatory connection, although rankings show a relationship of only —.02 and the Pressey test a positive relationship of .76. A possible positive relationship between positive self-feeling (self assertion, display) and energy devoted to work is shown by correlations of ranks .30, on questionnaire, .68, and on reaction test .80 (corrected for attenuation). Negative self-feeling (submission, self-depreciation, lack of confidence) yielded correlations with fear tendencies of .41 (rankings), .77 (questionnaire) and .91 (reaction test), the latter two having been corrected for attenuation. Sex differences statistically significant indicate more sex interest, work interest, positive self-feeling, among men; more disgust reaction and tenderness among women.

12. ALLEN, FRED H., Psychic Factors in Juvenile Delinquency. *Mental Hygiene*, October 1927, 764.

In 60 cases of stealing studied by a child guidance clinic, nearly 50% showed a relationship to a sense of inadequacy. A boy of 14, his self-respect injured by infantile treatment from an over-solicitous mother and scorn for his lack of virility from a stern father, stole from his employer to make a big splurge at an amusement park. A boy of 15, physically and mentally inferior, bullied by a powerful brother, obtained recognition in a gang by stealing. An intelligent boy of 13, his mother dead, resenting the interference of the domineering aunt with whom he lived, resenting too her comparisons between him and her own children, stole in what seemed to be a desire to get even with her. A boy suspected

of stealing at school, not trusted, resented being watched and stole, apparently on the theory that he might as well do what he had been blamed for.

13. ALTSCHUL, R. & DE ANGELIS E., Über eigenartige Begleitsymptome eines Hirnechinococcus. (Individual symptoms accompanying a brain echinococcus). *Monatsschr. f. Psychiat. u. Neur.*, 1927, 66, 325-341.

A tumor destroying all of that part of left occipital lobe usually thought to be involved in reading comprehension, produced no change in reading ability discoverable by clinical tests.

14. AMENT, WILLIAM S., Data on Effect of Religious Affiliation on Achievement of Distinction. *School & Society*, September 24, 1927, 399.

A study of data on 2,000 persons listed in "Who's Who," representing a fair sample of the total, showed that only one-half indicated church membership. In proportion to the whole population, Unitarians have 40 times their quota, the Episcopalians 7 times, Congregationalists 6 times, Friends 5 times; Roman Catholics and a large group of minor sects have less than 20% of their quota. Next to clergymen, educators were most likely to indicate any church membership. Among those who achieved distinction in science only about 35% indicated a church affiliation, and only 28 of those whose distinction came from work in the creative arts did so.

15. ANDERSON, J. A., The Dream as a Reconditioning Process. *Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology*, 1927, 22, 21-25.

A little girl, although frightened by a dog, apparently lost her fright after a year in an environment without such stimulation. On seeing a dog she made a mild response, which was repressed. That night a nightmare gave the full strength to the old fear, after which it was evident in her daily behavior for about three and a half years.

16. ANDERSON, L. DEWEY, The Relationships of Certain Environmental Factors to Measures of Mechanical Ability. *27th Yearbook National Society for the Study of Education*, 1927, Part II.

Comparison of the homes of 150 high school boys showed relatively low correlation between measures of cultural status, literary interest, recreational interests, mechanical operations of father, mechanical operations of son, tools owned by father, and tools owned by son. Correlation between these measures of mechanical stimulus in the environment and shop course scores was low. Environmental factors were more closely related to information than to manipulative skill.

17. ANDERSON, W. A., The Occupational Attitudes and Choices of a Group of College Men, Part I. *Social Forces*, 1927, 6, 278-283.

600 men students of the North Carolina State College were asked to rank occupations on the basis of their social status. Of the students who did the ranking, 34% came from homes in which the father was engaged in agriculture; 12% of the fathers were merchants; 5% were in railroad work; the other occupations were scattered. Occupations were rated in practically the same manner by the various classes and schools in which the men were found. Professions were ranked first, business occupations second, skilled trades third, baseball fourth, unskilled work fifth, leisure with no specific occupation, sixth. Clergymen were ranked first by all schools except the School of Science and Business, which ranked them third. Each group of students tended to favor the occupation for which they were preparing. Physicians and professors were usually placed above engineers, farmers, etc., even by students in those occupational schools.

18. ANON. Information and Data regarding Bureau Tests Previously Published. *Pub. Personnel Studies*, 1927, 9, 195-201.

An aptitude test for selecting high school teachers has a reliability of .80, correlating .54 with supervisors' ratings.

19. ANON., Recent Progress in Genetics. *Journal of Heredity*, 1927, 18, 523-527.

A summary of seven studies reported by Davenport to the Carnegie Institute. (1) Mets' study of a species of fly in which one of the females mated to several males, often has only daughters or only sons, whereas the offspring of a male mated to several females may include large numbers of each sex. (2) MacDowell and Allen indicate a rate of prenatal growth for mice essentially similar to the development in guinea pigs and chicks. (3) Mice born of mothers in which the thyroid had been completely removed before gestation began developed faster than their controls. Injury to the thyroid retarded growth of offspring. Removal of reproductive organs in young mice 10 days after birth had little effect upon growth. (4) Mice subjected to heaviest alcoholic treatment they could survive mated with normal females whose successive litters were sired alternately by a treated male and his untreated litter mate. No significant deviations of the sex ratio appeared. (5) Experiments with *Daphnia* showed the possibility of bringing about in three generations offspring capable of surviving temperatures of 80 first generation, 100 second generation, 110 third generation. (6) Study of physical and mental traits of Negroes, whites, and mulattoes in Jamaica. (7) Clear evidence for the similarity of parents and children in possession of goiter among 104 families of Maryland.

20. ARNOLD, H. J., The Standing of College Students in Two Elementary School Subjects. *Pressey, Research Adventures in University Teaching, Public School Pub. Co.*, 1927.

83 undergraduates in an Ohio college showed 24% below the 8th grade norm in arithmetic; 7% below the 8th grade norm in reading comprehension, 30% below in rate.

21. ARQUIN, S., Modification of Adrenalin Effect with Functional Status of Stomach. *Proceedings Society of Experimental Biology & Medicine*, 1927, 25, 97-98.

The action of adrenalin in a series of normal dogs depended upon the state of the stomach just before injection. A stomach in active digestive contraction was not influenced at all.

22. ASHBAUGH, E. J., Non-School English of High School Pupils. *Journal of Educational Research*, March 1927, 307-313.

1,500 letters received by pupils in junior and senior high school were analyzed; 300 letters written by children 13, 15, and 17 years of age were given more careful study; these were written by 52 boys and 248 girls. Grammatical errors average about one per letter, misspelled words about five per letter. Poor sentence structure was found in about 6% of the letters. Commas and apostrophes varied from 37% to 63% of error. The words misspelled were mainly simple words found in the 5,000 most commonly used.

23. AUGUSTIN, V. E., Moving Picture Preferences. *Journal of Delinquency*, 1927, 11, 206-209.

A study of a theatre in a middle class Los Angeles neighborhood showed largest attendance on Sunday, poorest on Monday. Most popular pictures were a farce comedy, a light comedy, and a comedy drama.

24. BAGBY, E. A., Compulsion and Its Motivation. *Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology*, 1927, 22, 8-11.

A young man with a compulsive hand-biting habit came to believe that the symptom was a distraction to keep himself from thinking about his sin.

25. BAIN, R., Religious Attitudes of College Students. *American Journal of Sociology*, 1927, 32, 762-770.

A study of the religious and social attitudes of 200 college students indicates less belief in God than Leuba found ten years ago. Women have almost, but not quite, caught up with men in liberalism. Upper classmen were more liberal than under classmen. Of lower classmen, 16% believe in a personal God; 7% of seniors do so. Belief in some form of punishment after death—49% of underclassmen, 36% of seniors.

26. BAMBERGER, FLORENCE E., A Survey of Observable, Improvable Factors which Evidence Skill in Teaching. *Elementary School Journal*, 1927, 28, 181-185.

A list made up by 48 supervising principals in a class in supervision.

27. BANNELLS, MARION E., The Psychiatric Social Worker's Technique in Meeting Resistance. *Mental Hygiene*, January 1927, 78.

A systematic analysis setting forth five factors arising from environment bringing about more or less resistance, a dozen differences between social worker and client which may influence resistance, eight elements in clients' emotional reactions, three or four chronic attitudes, four or five fears which may contribute to resistance rather than rapport. Among the useful general suggestions are: "Let the client know that the social worker is at ease and has time to listen and consider. Discussion of subjects other than the one of immediate importance gives the interviewee an opportunity to get acquainted with the worker and tends to remove uneasiness and suspicion. Allow the interviewee to give free rein to his pent-up feelings. Allow time for reactions after an emotional upset. Avoid unnecessary argument, contradiction, or dictation. Detect and then avoid the discussion of "sore points." Meet, never ignore, objections. Approve the interviewee's good intentions, ambitions, and resolutions. Whenever possible have suggestions come from one to whom the interviewee looks up, or whom he considers an authority. Avoid making appeals on a personal basis.

28. BARRETT, ALBERT M., Heredity Relations in Schizophrenia. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, July 1927, 77.

Results from a study of 150 unselected cases of Schizophrenia were compared with other studies of the insane and of normals as follows:

	% tainted by abnormal hereditary taint	% tainted by psychoses character
Schizophrenics ..	78	43
Manic depressives..	84	21
Epileptic	81	12
Insane in general..	78	19
Normal	67	15

In schizophrenia taints appeared in parents in 16% of the cases (manic depressives 26%). Indirect taints appeared in 38% of the cases (manic depressive 18%). Taints appeared in grandparents in 26% of the cases (manic depressives 16%). No evidence of sex link.

29. BARTLETT, E. D., A Test to Gauge Business Knowledge. *Personnel Journal*, 1927, 6, 199-204.

This test, involving probably a large measure of intelligence, correlates .79 with esti-

mates of business knowledge and .37 with salaries.

30. BARTLETT, R. J., Does the Psychogalvanic Phenomenon Indicate Emotion? *British Journal of Psychology*, XVIII, 1, July 1927, 30.

Psychogalvanic records appear to show for each subject characteristic curves following shock experiences, relaxation, anxiety, or admiration. Retests three months later bear a close resemblance to the first records.

31. BAXTER, M. F., An Experimental Study of the Differentiation of Temperaments on a Basis of Rate and Strength. *American Journal of Psychology*, 1927, 38, 59-96.

An attempt to see whether persons fall into four temperament groups showed no sharply defined separations in either psychological or physiological measurements.

32. BEAN, C. H., Job-Analyzing Athletics. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1927, 11, 369-380.

An apparatus for measuring the speed with which a student could perceive a situation, choose, and react, correlated .56 with coaches' ratings on athletic efficiency. Intelligence showed correlations with athletic ratings in various schools of .41, .39 and .25.

33. BEAR, R. M., The Predictive Value of the Iowa Physics Aptitude Placement Test. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1927, 11, 381-384.

A correlation, based upon 38 freshmen, between these tests and grades in all subjects, was .64, whereas the correlation with grades in physics was only .25.

34. BEAUCHAMP, ROBERT O. & WEBB, HANOR A., Resourcefulness: An Unmeasured Ability. *School Science and Mathematics*, May 1927, 457-465.

A series of laboratory tests prepared to test the resourcefulness of high school pupils. For example, given, two mirrors; required, to inspect the back side of the upper front teeth; given, mixture of sugar, sand, iron filings, water, magnet, and towel; required, to separate each of the three substances from the other two. Reliability of the test is unknown; correlation with intelligence tests range from .04 to .42, whereas with achievement tests in physics and chemistry the correlation is only .14. An experience record indicating extent to which pupils had done things like this before showed a correlation of .60 with the test.

35. BELLING, CLARENCE H., Inadequate Childhood Training a Factor in Mental Disease. *Psychologic Quarterly*, January 1927, 96.

An only son of a father uneducated, excessively alcoholic, irritable, dishonest, abusive to his family, lost contact with his friends and was unable to mingle socially; he developed hallucinations of wealth and power. A high school boy, son of an irritable, stubborn, and psychopathic father, suddenly upset by the failure of the bank in which the boy worked, became seclusive; he expressed a desire to leave home and later, a desire to die. An 18 year old son of a mother who nursed him for 14 months was bashful, shy, and gradually developed an infantile phantasy life. A college girl adopted by foster parents who were well educated, popular, and gave her much liberty and encouragement, became involved in an affair with a married man; she developed a mild psychosis out of the conflict, but recovered on a highly satisfactory level because of her excellent training.

36. BERTOFF, J., Über die individuell-erworbene Tätigkeit des Zentralnervensystems (On the individually acquired activity of the central nervous system). *J. f. Psychologie und Neur.*, 1927, 33, 113-335.

Experiments defining the conditions under which conditioned reflexes are acquired, generalities and differentiation within reflexes, obliteration, reinstatement, and interference. Hunger speeds up the rate of forming conditioned reflexes, but makes analysis and differentiation less accurate. Slight exertion has a similar effect. Greater exertion may reduce excitability. Conditioned and unconditioned reflexes may disappear in old age.

37. BETTS, GEORGE H., Teachers' Diagnosis of Classroom Difficulties. *Elementary School Journal*, April 1927, 600.

Responses from 117 elementary school teachers and 139 high school teachers concerning "most pressing difficulties" in their classrooms. Little fault was found with texts, equipment, or response of community to school; much difficulty was found with lack of interest, attitude of irresponsibility, inability to read and comprehend on the part of pupils. The resulting list of 90 problems submitted for ranking to 451 additional teachers gave a major emphasis to school conduct and attitudes, typified, for example, by "unnecessary whispering." The leading difficulty reported in connection with teaching the lesson was "some pupils want to talk too much."

38. BILLS, ARTHUR GILBERT, Influence of Muscular Tension on Efficiency of Mental Work. *American Journal of Psychology*, April 1927, 227.

Of ten subjects compared under normal conditions and when squeezing a dynamometer in each hand at a constant tension, in learning nonsense syllables 7 did better under tension; in color perception 8 did better under tension; in

learning paired associates and in addition all ten excelled when under tension. Tension was most helpful when speed was a criterion.

39. BIRD, CHARLES, The Influence of the Press upon Accuracy of Report. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, July-September 1927, 123.

An unwitting distortion by a university newspaper of certain experimental data given in a lecture in general psychology made it possible to study the effect of inaccurate press reports. One experiment reported by Seashore in which 8 college students reacted to experimental conditions by perceiving warmth in 415 out of 420 trials, or reacted positively in 98% of the trials, when there was no increase of thermal stimulation present. The other experiment cited was relative to the effectiveness of spoken language in establishing hand rigidity; it was stated that 49% of a group of grammar school pupils could not close the hand made rigid by verbal suggestion. The paper came out with the statement that 98% of college people are so suggestible that if you tell them their hand is rigid they believe it, also that of 420 college students examined all but 5 were suggestible. Questions on the lecture were submitted to two groups of students who had heard it. Of 456 students, 251 had read the press article, 205 had not. Results showed that the group which had not been subjected to the error of newspaper report were consistently more accurate in their answers.

40. BLACKHURST, J. H., Investigations in the Hygiene of Reading. Baltimore, 1927, Warwick & York, pp. 63.

Experiments indicate that 18-point type is better than smaller sizes for the first four grades, the optimum length of line being 100 millimeters.

41. BLACKWOOD, BEATRICE, A Study of Mental Testing in Relation to Anthropology. *Mental Measurement Monographs, Serial No. 4*, December 1927, pp. v + 120.

The International Group Measurement Test showed no statistically reliable difference between 413 Indian children and 200 Spanish-American (Mexican) children in New Mexico and Arizona. The Otis Self-Administering Test placed both groups far below the white norms, the Indians being more retarded than the Mexicans.

42. BLATZ, W. E. & BOTT, E. A., Studies in Mental Hygiene of Children: I. Behavior of Public School Children—A Description of Method. *Pedagogical Seminary*, 1927, 34, 552-582.

Teachers in a Toronto school enrolling 1,400 children kept careful record of all misdemeanors under such headings as disobedience, uncleanness, deceitfulness, showing off, swearing,

restlessness, inattention, emotional episodes, timidity, irregularity, lack of application, indecencies, damage to persons or property. Boys showed more than girls; most were reported at ages 8-9; more intelligent pupils showed fewer misdemeanors; "only" children had the best record.

43. BLISS, JAMES G., A Study of Progression based on Age, Sex, and Individual Differences in Strength and Skill. *American Physical Education Review*, 32, 11 and 85 (1927).

6,000 records from grades VII to IX showed progression by age in twelve fundamental tests. The best of the twelve were standing broad jump, hang-pull-up, fence vault, basket ball speed pass, basket ball distance throw, baseball target throw, rest and push-up. Progress was usually better for boys than for girls.

44. BLISS, JAMES G., The Validity of the Medical Examiner's Rating in the Administration of Physical Education. *American Physical Education Review*, December, 1927, 707-717.

The same medical examiner made forty physical examinations. Measures included height, weight, girth of chest in expiration and inspiration, lung capacity, strength of forearms, hearing, vision, vision with glasses, speech defects, teeth, heart rate before and after exercise, heart condition, shoulders, feet, spine, nervous condition, nutrition, etc. Individuals were scored on a ten-point scale. Ratings of general efficiency, based upon teachers' judgments, were secured for these boys. Cardiac efficiency was measured by a stethoscope. The Sargent "Physical Test of a Man" was used to test motor accomplishment. Correlation between medical examiner's rating and cardiac efficiency was .093; between medical rating and motor accomplishment —.054. Correlation is —.14 between teachers' judgments of efficiency and cardiac efficiency. It is .32 between teachers' judgments and motor accomplishment. Correlation between cardiac efficiency and motor accomplishment is .46.

45. BOLENBAUGH, L. & PROCTOR, W. M., Relation of the Subjects taken in High School to Success in College. *Journal of Educational Research*, 1927, 15, 87-92.

Records of 600 students at Stanford showed that students who had followed the academic pattern did not do significantly better work than students whose high school careers followed the vocational pattern.

46. BONJOUR, L., La Part du Psychisme dans l'Accouchement, Cause, Fréquence Nocturne et Narcose Subite (Psychic factors in parturition; its cause, frequency of nocturnal occurrence and narcosis-like components). *Presse Méd.*, 1927, 35, 603-604.

Discussion of several cases in which hypnosis has proven effective in accelerating or retarding menstruation and delivery.

47. BOOK, W. F., How Well College Students Can Read. *School and Society*, August 20, 1927, 26, 242-248.

Among 900 freshmen only 27% (boys) or 39% (girls) could give the title of the selection assigned the day before, with a mean reproduction of main points amounting to 34% (boys) and 43% (girls). On the basis of score made per minute of reading time the best readers were 7 times as good as the poorest, although both were alike in intelligence. Pupils making a speed-of-reading score of 1 to 19% earned on the average 11 credit points, whereas those making a speed-of-reading score of 75—100% earned on the average 32.5 credit points. Psychology sections receiving some special counsel in efficient reading made a reading score of 70, which might be compared with equivalent sections in psychology untrained in this particular phase, making a score of 59.

48. BOOK, W. F., Results obtained in a Special "How to Study" Course given to College Students. *School and Society*, 1927, 26, 529-534.

Students report only about 80% of the available time used for anything they considered profitable. Systematic planning increased this to 97%. Students in "How to Study" courses in a laboratory section given special training in reading showed improvement in number of credit points earned the following semester.

49. BOWDEN, GEORGE A., Some Causes of the Bread Line. *Social Forces*, March 1927, 507-509.

653 men applying for assistance in the fall of 1924 were for the most part under 25 years of age. 90% were unmarried; 60% were Protestant. Leading occupations: clerk, fireman, cook, factory hand. Although of generally inferior intelligence, some superior individuals appeared. Two-thirds had not gone beyond the grade school, and only 6% had graduated from high school. Analysis of cases indicates the presence of some important emotional problems, such, for example, as self-pity, making the victim unable to adjust himself to any kind of work.

50. BOWMAN, K. M., Endocrine and Biochemical Studies in Schizophrenia. *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease*, 1927, 65, 465-483 and 585-604.

24 cases of basal metabolism, blood sugar, galactose tolerance, blood count, blood chemistry, Kottman test, spinal fluid, gastric analysis, renal function, oculocardiac reflex, and X-ray studies, showed no deviations from normal except that slightly less than half showed abnormal blood sugar curves and about the same

proportion showed low basal metabolism. Cases are given.

51. BRACE, D. K., Measuring Motor Ability. *New York. Barnes, 1927, pp. 138.*

A scale of 20 tests correlating from .70 to .80 with score, on athletic events and giving reliabilities on retests of 71 to 90. Each test is meant to measure natural rather than acquired physical ability.

52. BRANHAM, V. C., The Classification of Defective Delinquents. *Psychologic Quarterly, January 1927, 59.*

A study of 135 cases at the New York State Institution for Defective Delinquents showed percentage of foreign born parents double that for the state as a whole; 9 times as many feeble-minded among the brothers and sisters as in the community at large; 65% had not succeeded in reaching the 5th grade. A series of types in relation to the social good is suggested as a basis of classification.

53. BRAUN, F., Untersuchungen über das persönliche Tempo (studies on the personal tempo). *Arch. f. d. ges. Psychologie, 1927, 60, 317-360.*

Some indication that the normal rate of work in tapping, lifting weights, walking, repetition of a single written letter, is characteristic of a person, although subject to change by the suggestion of a particular rate.

54. BREED, FREDERICK S., Factors Contributing to Success in College Teaching. *Journal of Educational Research, November 1927, 247.*

A comparison of the ranking of 34 carefully selected instructional activities ranked first by 56 members of the faculty of the University of Chicago, and later by 100 students in the same university. There was no significant difference between ranking by the faculty and that by the students of the major groups: these were ranged as follows, in order of importance: 1. knowledge and organization of subject matter; 2. skill in instruction; 3. personal qualities; 4. professional development, and 5. university cooperation. There is no evidence in this study for the conclusion that students place more stress on the personal qualities of their instructors than on any others. On the subdivisions of these major groups the students in comparison with the faculty place a higher value on making satisfactory assignments, stress more the importance of openmindedness in the instructor, value much less than he does his devotion to research, and are more concerned to have him manifest an interest in the general problems of the university.

55. BREWER, J. M., Causes for Discharge. *Personnel Journal, 1927, 6, 171-172.*

A study of 4,375 cases, analyzing causes for discharge from industrial establishments, showed 34% lacking technical skill and competence; 62% lacking personal, emotional, and moral qualifications. The most frequent complaints in the latter group were: insubordination, 11%; unreliability, 10%; absenteeism, 10%; laziness, 7%.

56. BRIDGES, J. W., A Study of a Group of Delinquent Girls. *Pedagogical Seminary, 1927, 34, 187-204.*

33 girls in an industrial school showed uniformly poor home environment, National Intelligence Test mental age of about 12, median symptomatic responses on the Mathews questionnaire of 23 (norm 12), on the Woodworth 27 (compared with 32 college women, 21).

57. BRIDGES, J. W., Emotional Instability of College Students. *Int. Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1927, 22, 227-234.*

Woodworth questionnaire given to 136 men (mainly medical students) and 32 women (mainly art students) at the University of Toronto showed generally larger proportion of responses significant of instability among the arts students among the women. 10% of the men and 25% of the women exceeded a score of 25. The most frequent and least frequent symptoms are listed. Correlations with Army Alpha were below .10. Correlations with school marks, using the Woodworth, Pressey, and Kent-Rosanoff tests, suggested a slight possible tendency for cleverer students to be more unstable. Women were more apt than men to report such symptoms as: 1. inability to stand disgusting smells. 2. inability to do good work while people look on. 3. trouble with shyness. 4. no love affairs. 5. difficulty in knowing just what to do next.

58. BRIDGES, K. M. B., Occupational Interests of Three-year-old Children. *Pedagogical Seminary, 1927, 34, 415-423.*

Six boys and four girls ranging in age from 2 years 6 months to 3 years 8 months were observed for about 19 days. Average I. Q. of group 106. The children were allowed to take any occupation they liked during the free play hour. Boys preferred building with large bricks; girls preferred cylinders and color pairing. The girls prefer occupations involving fine finger movements and routine activity; the boys prefer more active and creative occupations. The average time spent on one occupation was eight minutes.

59. BRIFFAULT, R., The Mothers. *New York, Macmillan, 1927, 3 volumes, pp. 781, 841, 789.*

The most monumental accumulation of evidence which has yet been brought forward on

the general development of civilization and particularly of the sex institutions; the bibliography alone contains nearly 200 pages. The author finds evidence for believing that the mating instinct is antagonistic to the social instinct. He finds abundant evidence to support the notion that promiscuity has been widely accepted, and that the first forms of marriage are matriarchal. In general the evidence tends to support the proposition that the institutions have for the most part been devised and controlled in the interests of women.

60. BRIGGS, T. H., Praise and Censure as Incentives. *School and Society*, 1927, 26, 596-598.

A review is given of three experimental studies. All three indicate that commendation and encouragement are superior to censure, ridicule, and threats.

61. BRILL, M. S., Motivation of Conduct Disorders in Boys. *Journal of Delinquency*, March 1927, 5-22.

Two groups of 20 boys each were studied, one with I. Q. of below 90, the other above 110, all of them being habit clinic problems. Case studies illustrate the motives which predominate in misbehavior. The defense motives, such as avoidance, compensation, making up for a lack, misgrading, discouragement, were found more often among superior children; whereas self assertion, love of excitement, enjoyment of cruelty, were more common in the dull group. Misgrading was responsible for 50% of the classroom truancy cases. The dull group are much more apt to be unmanageable and to show smoking, running away, and disorderliness in the neighborhood. Motives in the bright group are more isolated and peculiar. Nine of the superior children came from broken homes, whereas only two of the subnormal children did so. Average number of behavior difficulties per superior child, 3; per dull child, 5.

62. BROOM, E., Constancy of the I. Q. *School and Society*, 1927, 25, 295-296.

Retest of 50 high school students by the Terman group test showed a median change in I. Q. of about five points.

63. BROTEMARKLE, R. A., College Student Personnel Problems. I. Individual Mental Testing at the College-Adult Level. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 127, 11, 415-436.

If tests be arranged in a series from very simple tests of fundamental ability like memory span, to very complex processes of language ability and judgment, students may be classed in types according to their percentile position on each of the tests. They may be consistently high, or they may be high in the simple abilities but decline in the complex.

They may be consistently average, or average in the simple abilities with a rising or falling tendency, as the tests become more complex. Others will be consistently low or low on the simple abilities and higher in the complex. Using these types, it is possible to show correlation with academic grades and to obtain insight which is useful in handling cases.

64. BRUECKNER, L. J. & CUTRIGHT, PRUDENCE, A Technique for Measuring the Efficiency of Supervision. *Journal of Educational Research*, December 1927, 323.

One reading lesson by each teacher was observed, indicating the objective, material, and activity of the lesson. Bulletins were then distributed and demonstration lessons offered. A second survey was then made, observing another reading lesson for each teacher. Objectives such as "ability to comprehend clearly what is read" appeared in 32% of the first series and 9% of the second. Lessons employing the objective of ability to use an index increased from 5% to 9%; those around selecting and evaluating what is read increased from 8% to 21%.

65. BRUNS, FRED, Causes of Elimination from the Sunday School of the Evangelical Church, as shown by a Case Study of Fifty Young People of Metropolitan Chicago. M. A. thesis, Northwestern University; not published.

A personal interview study of young people, once faithful Sunday school attendants, showed the major cause of dissatisfaction to be the class. 40% of the young people did not care to attend because they were different in age, interests, or social class from the pupils with whom they were grouped. 96% liked their teachers and felt that the teachers made adequate preparation. 70% felt the method satisfactory, but over half found the lesson material uninteresting or interesting only in part. Worship, hymns, classrooms, lighting, ventilation, special programs, socials, hikes, and picnics, although quite traditional, seemed entirely satisfactory.

66. BUCKINGHAM, B. R., Upward versus Downward Addition. *Journal of Educational Research*, 1927, 16, 315-322.

Groups of children (122 pairs) taught to add downward did better in all except one experiment than pupils taught to add upward, all differences being very small.

67. BURGDOERFER, F., Die Geschlechterproportion und der Frauenüberschuss (The Proportion of the Sexes and the Surplus of Females). *Zsch. f. Sex-Wiss.*, 1927, 14, 10-17.

Birth statistics in Europe since the war show a steady increase in the surplus of females.

68. BURKS, BARBARA STODDARD, A Summary of Literature on the Determiners of the Intelligence Quotient and the Educational Quotient. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Society for the Study of Education, Part II, 248-350.*

Critical review with summary of the main results, for 239 investigations on family resemblance in intelligence, intelligence and social status, race differences in intelligence, intelligence and health, schooling, age, emotional traits, constancy of intelligence, coaching; effect of family, length of school attendance, school conditions, teaching ability, sectioning, etc., on school achievement.

69. BURKS, BARBARA STODDARD, The Relative Influence of Nature and Nurture upon Mental Development: a Comparative Study of Foster-Parent Foster-Child Resemblance and True Parent True Child Resemblance. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Society for the Study of Education, 1927, Part I, 219-316.*

This study is based upon children placed in foster homes before the age of one year, the average age at placement being 3 months. Comparison was made with a control group matched for age, sex, type of family and neighborhood. Correlation of intelligence of children with that of father in the control group was .45, among adopted children .07; with the control mothers, .46; with foster mothers, .19. Similar relationships held for economic status of the home, culture index of the home, education of parents, etc. In the case of the average child the influence of home environment upon intelligence is estimated at about 17%, the contribution of innate factors is about 75% to 80%. It is estimated that the difference between an average home and a home which is better or worse than that of five-sixths of the population is about 6 points, almost certainly between 3 and 9 points, of I. Q.

70. BURKE, R. S., On the Trail of the Sociable Person. *Industrial Psychology, 1927, 2, 139-142.*

Recognition of names and occupations connected with photographs shown by a projection lantern to 91 psychology students gave low correlations, .3 to .4, with ratings on sociability. Correlations with intelligence and rote memory are reported low.

71. BUSQUET, H., The Determination or the Return of the Characteristics of Masculinity in Capons and Old Cocks through the Serum of Young Male Animals. *C. R. Soc. Biology, 1927, 97, 1463-1465.*

The blood of young animals contains substances which reduce the senile poisons in old animals. The serum of young bulls, stallions, and rams brought a reappearance of masculinity in castrated and senile cocks. The effect was

more apparent if there had previously been some injection of the serum of the old animal into the young one from which the later serum was drawn.

72. BYRD, HASSELTINE, Divorce in Relation to Social Change. *Master's essay, Columbia University, 1927, not published.*

Ratio of marriages to divorce, according to U. S. Census figures, was 8.1 in 1900, and 14.5 in 1924. In 1870 there were 28 divorces per 100,000 of population; in 1924 there were 151. In 1887 there were 17.3 marriages to one divorce; in 1924, 6.9. In over one-half the divorces granted there are no children. In nearly 70% of the cases the divorce was granted to the wife. The greatest number of divorces over a 20-year period were granted for desertion and cruelty. Figures indicate that the urban centers tend to have a greater divorce rate than the rural. Figures for Atlanta, Los Angeles, Kansas City, Denver and Cleveland average about 2 marriages for every divorce, while for the whole U. S. the number of marriages to one divorce is 6.9 (1924).

73. CALKINS, MARY WHITON, The Self in Recent Psychology. *Psychological Bulletin, April 1927, 205.*

Summary, based on articles in general and philosophical psychology. Psychoanalytic and clinical studies are not included. Bibliography of 38 titles.

74. CARNEY, ISABELLE M., A Study of Girl Gangs. *Mind and Body, June 1927, 111.*

Personal investigation of 42 girl gangs showed them made up of girls living in the same neighborhood, alike in age within the gang (although varying in median age from 8 to 16), and having a nucleus of from 6 to 12 persons. Girls seemed to place less emphasis upon initiations than boys, and to do less stealing. Boys are more apt to tease ragmen, peddlers, and laundrymen, while girls try to plague one of their own age and sex, not a member of the gang. Running games, nature walks, and fighting were among the most common activities. 31 met any place, 39 met every day.

75. CARPENTER, N., How the Immigrant Makes His Living. *Personnel Journal, 1927, 6, 229-241.*

Study of occupational distribution of 500,000 recent immigrants based on U. S. Census reports, showed 81% of the Swedes, 87% of the Norwegians, 88% of the Danes, 65% of the Germans, 78% of the Bohemians and Moravians are on farms. Only 18% of the English, Scotch and Welsh are on farms, 40% being in mining. Hebrews have a surprisingly large representation among the salesmen, semi-skilled clothing workers, stenographers and typists, and physicians. "New" southern and

eastern Europeans are less likely to be found on farms. 81% of the Irish women are in domestic service.

76. CARROTHERS, GEORGE E., Health and Physical Efficiency of City Teachers. *Journal of Educational Research*, October 1927, 184-197.

A study of sickness among 4,000 Cleveland school teachers showed slight decrease in days of illness from age 21 to 60. Married women average 30% more days of illness than unmarried women. Men had less than one-half the average number of days of illness. There was more illness on Monday than on Friday. Correlation between days of illness and length of service was .02 in Cleveland, .07 in Springfield. Illness was no greater in foreign sections, in higher or lower schools, among teachers in congested areas, or teachers carrying extension work.

77. CASEY, MARY L., DAVIDSON, HELEN P., & HARTER, DORIS I., Three Studies on the Effect of Training in Similar and Identical Material upon Stanford-Binet Scores. *27th Yearbook National Society Study of Education*, 1927, Part I, 431-439.

Thirteen first-grade children given eight hours training scattered over eight weeks in material similar to that of the Stanford-Binet, showed a distinct gain which grew less as time passed. Twenty-six third-grade children given nine hours training compared with 26 paired children given no training showed a gain on certain tests but no significant gain in I. Q. Ten first-grade children given training in picking similarities and differences showed some gain in facility as compared with an uncoached control group.

78. CAVAN, RUTH SHONLE, Character Education in Public Schools. *Religious Education*, 1927, 917-949.

Among 72 cities, three have no program of character education; one emphasizes a mental hygiene approach to individuals, 15 use some form of religious education varying from Bible reading without comment to excusing pupils on school time to attend churches, 16 mention the indirect training received through classroom and extra-curricular activities, 37 have some direct course. Sample programs are described. Few if any emphasize the character values of the initiator, the rebel, the aggressive thinker, and the leader in social reconstruction.

79. CAVAN, R. S. & J. T., The Attitudes of Young Business Women toward Home and Married Life. *Religious Education*, 1927, 22, 817-820.

Sixty-nine unmarried girls between 18 and 30, two-thirds of them high school graduates,

most of them church members and living at home, practically all look forward to being married. 35 have been seriously interested in men friends, 28 have not. Of those who have, 22 broke off the relationship for one reason or another.

80. CAXENVELTE, L. L., Mental Aspects of Leprosy. *Journal of the American Medical Ass'n.*, 1927, 89.

A study of 400 lepers indicated that 20% had mental abnormalities, 3% having definite psychoses. Serious depression was found in 4% of the group.

81. CHAMBERS, O. R., Measurement of Personality Traits. *Pressey, Research Adventures in University Teaching*, 1927, 71.

A slightly greater tendency appeared for 50 students with high grades to cross out words on the Pressey X-O test than for the 50 lowest. High grade students tend to worry more, to be more introvert, to condemn sportiveness and betting more. Poor students condemned day-dreaming, bashfulness, and absentmindedness.

82. CHAPMAN, H. B., Organized Research in Education. *Columbus, O., State University Press*, 1927. *Bureau of Educational Research Monograph No. 7*, pp. x + 221.

A monograph of 20 chapters discussing the operation of research agencies in the U. S. and in some foreign countries. The first Bureau of Educational Research in the U. S. was set up in Baltimore in 1912. About 100 now exist in the U. S. The typical bureau of research was established in 1920, has a staff of 4 persons—a director, an assistant, a general clerical worker, and a psychologist. The director has an M. A. and receives a salary of \$4,150. The average year's program is made up of 7 projects, 4 of them being special problems and 3 routine studies or surveys. The bureaus in connection with universities have been more recently established; the director's salary averages \$4,750; the bureau deals on the average with 2 routine and 4 research problems.

83. CHRISTIANSEN, HELEN M., First Grade Music Interpreters. *Child Education*, December 1927, 176.

38 first-grade children were encouraged to create music to fit their immediate interests, using jingle bells, tambourines, triangles, cymbals, drums, hand-sticks and rattles. A questionnaire sent to mothers indicated considerable growth. 22 had asked to be taken to hear music; 24 tried to make up tunes; 26 tried to make musical instruments, etc.

84. CLARK, E. L., Family Background and College Success. *School and Society*, 1927, 25, 237-238.

Among 740 Northwestern University freshmen the best grades were obtained by those students having two foreign-born parents, the poorest grades by those having two native-born parents.

85. CLARKE, F. A., Some Character Tests. *American Educational Digest*, 1927, 46, 225-226.

Application of "peeping" test to 500 daily vacation Bible school pupils in Lincoln, Nebraska, showed 56% of the boys and 68% of the girls cheating on at least one of three trials. 26% of the boys and 33% of the girls cheated throughout. Age, school and Sunday school experience exerted no influence. A test at the close showed 17% improvement for the boys, 31% for the girls, but the group had changed markedly. 75% of the perfectly honest group the first time were honest at the close, 50% of the completely dishonest group at the beginning were dishonest at the close.

86. CLAY, W. M. & WILCOX, F. M., Five Generations of an Inferior Family. *Journal of Heredity*, 1927, 18, 121-23.
Twenty degenerates.

87. COCKING, W. D. & HOLY, T. C., Relation of Intelligence Scores to High School and University Marks. *Educational Research Bulletin*, 1927, 6, 383-384.

A study of 266 college freshmen at Iowa showed higher correlation between high school grades and college grades than between college grades and scores upon intelligence tests. Boys and girls were alike in intelligence, but girls were superior in college grades.

88. COE, GEORGE A., What Teachers of Secondary Education Think of Military Training in High Schools. *School and Society*, August 6, 1927, 174.

Data based upon 51 responses to a request for opinions, sent to professors of secondary education in university schools of education and teachers' colleges. Approximately two-fifths of them come from privately endowed universities and colleges, two-fifths from state and municipal universities, and one-fifth from state teachers' colleges. Of the 51 who replied, 33 would have no military training at all, and only two are positively in favor of it, with the others giving qualified answers. Of the 33 who would have none at all, 21 are in state and municipal institutions.

89. COLLINS, M., British Norms for the Pressey Cross-Out Test. *British Journal of Psychology*, 1927, 18, 121-133.

A modified form of the Pressey X-O given to 1,500 British children obtained norms quite different from the American ones, but repetition with 100 children after intervals of a week and a year indicates a large amount of

unreliability in the apparent emotional problems.

90. COLLMAN, R. D. & McRAE, C. R., An Attempt to Measure the Strength of Instincts. *Forum of Education*, 1927, 3, 171-181.

Psychogalvanic reflex responses made by 42 students to words designed to test the strength of various instincts (four words for each of ten instincts) showed a correlation of .43 with results from ratings based on 28 questions answered by friends and by subject. The strongest instincts appeared to be, in general, mating (deflection 1.8 times the average); self-abasement (average deflection); escape (average). Revulsion and the acquisitive instinct rated lowest (.8 average deflection).

91. COMMUN, W. D., & SHANKS, T. B., The Relation of Interest to Ability in School Subjects. *Elementary School Journal*, 1927, 27, 768-771.

Among 167 fifth-grade pupils 70 preferred arithmetic to reading and 67% of these scored higher in arithmetic than they did in reading. Among the 97 who preferred reading, 52% did better work in it than in arithmetic.

92. CONKLIN, E. S., The Determination of Normal Extravert-Introvert Differences. *Pedagogical Seminary*, 1927, 34, 28-37.

A questionnaire on individuals' liking or disliking for 40 proposals yielded with 350 college students a reliability coefficient of .95. The correlation of introversion with intelligence was .05 in one group, .32 in another. Occupational groups were clearly determined, the most introverted being journalism majors, the least introverted business administration majors and life insurance salesmen.

93. CONKLIN, E. S., BYROM, N. E., & KNIPS, A., Some Mental Effects of Menstruation. *Pedagogical Seminary*, 1927, 34, 357-367.

Responses to a questionnaire were obtained from 1,568 females. Of these 486 were high school girls, 936 were college girls, and 146 mature women. 20% reported no discomfort, 45% slight discomfort, 24% marked pain, and 11% intense pain.

94. CORNELL, ETHEL L., Taking the Dogma Out of the I. Q. *Mental Hygiene*, October 1927, 804-810.

When tested in kindergarten, John had a Stanford-Binet I. Q. of 104, a Pintner-Cunningham I. Q. of 101. In the third grade, having been retarded in each previous grade, John was 10 years old with a Stanford-Binet I. Q. of 78; retardation was due apparently to self-consciousness, shyness, and nervousness.

95. CORSON, Factors in the Development of Psychoses in College Men. *Mental Hygiene*, July 1927, 498.

Among 25 students of high I. Q. having emotional defects in adjusting to college, six cases show an attempt to follow in the steps of illustrious predecessors without taking due account of their own limitations; five cases attempted to add glory to a family where mediocrity was the rule. No physical ailments were found to be important.

96. COUNTS, G. S., The Social Composition of Boards of Education: A study in the Social Control of Public Education. *Sup. Ed. Monographs*, 1927, No. 33, pp. 100.

A study of the members of 1,654 school boards over the entire country shows about 10% women, 50% proprietors and professional men, manual laborers only 3%. The average age is 48 years for city and country boards, 54 for state and college boards. 42% of the country boards and 6% of members of college boards have not gone beyond 8th grade.

97. COURBON, P. & FAIL, G., Syndrome d' "Illusion de Frégoli" et Schizophrénie. (Syndrome of the "Illusion of Fregoli" and Schizophrenia.) *Bul. Soc. Clin. Méd. Ment.*, 1927, 20, 121-125.

A case of delusion in which a girl of 27 believes a prominent actress to be persecuting her in the guise of friends and neighbors.

98. COURTENAY, ELIZABETH M., Interests of the Adolescent Girl. *Journal of Education*, November 7, 1927, 443.

Questionnaires from 420 girls 16 to 20 years of age showed liking for swimming, basketball, skating and tennis. Among social activities dancing, motoring and "fellows" rated high. Movies rated low. Cooking was more popular than sewing. General housework was not attractive. Novels and mystery stories led among books. Social clubs and school clubs were more popular than church clubs.

99. COZENS, FREDERICK W., Studies of the Problems of the Relation of Physical to Mental Ability. *American Physical Education Review*, March 1927, 147.

410 men from the University of Oregon show a correlation of $-.002$ between physical ability tests and score on the Otis S-A test of intelligence. 337 men at the University of Southern California also showed a correlation of $-.002$ between Army Alpha score and a series of "big muscle" physical performance tests.

100. CUNLIFFE, R. B., Whither Away and Why: Trends in Choice of Vocation in Detroit. *Personnel Journal*, 1927, 6, 25-28.

Tests given an entering class at the College of the City of Detroit showed that of those choosing journalism 84% were above median intelligence; engineering, 66% above; business 61% above. Law, dentistry and pharmacy had 37%, 36%, and 20% above the average. Most students did not choose their fathers' occupations; always less than 20% did so, the average being 7%.

101. CUSHING, HAZEL M. & RUCH, G. M., Character Traits in Delinquent Girls. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, February 1927.

A comparison of 50 delinquent girls in Iowa with 50 public school girls in a series of tests. The girls were matched for chronological age, mental age, and I. Q. The most significant differences were in suggestibility (12 P. E. difference), Woodworth Psychopathic Questionnaire (9 P. E. difference), False Book Titles (5 P. E. difference), Social Attitudes (5 P. E. difference). Choice of boy companions was more diagnostic than choice of girl companions; on the latter point there was little difference. Bi-serial correlations for suggestibility and psychopathic questionnaire were .62 and .60; for social attitudes and false book titles, .41 and .40. Correlation of .50 between suggestibility and mental age. Length of commitment appeared unrelated to tests. Other significant correlations were: mental age and offense ratings, .38; suggestibility and offense ratings, .38; false book titles and overstatement, .42; choice of girl companions and choice of boy companions, .50; choice of boy companions and social attitudes, .55. The psychopathic questionnaire showed no correlation with any of the other instruments.

102. CUSHMAN, C. L., A Study of the Reliability of Mental Tests as Used in Oklahoma City. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1927, 11, 509-511.

260 children retested upon entering a new school after an average interval of about a year, showed an average difference between the first and second tests of about eight points of I. Q. The difference was about the same whether the tests used were Binet or Otis, or the first time one and the second time the other.

103. DANIEL, J. F., The Action of Alcohol on the Body and its Output of Work. *Scientific Monthly*, 1927, 25, 461-467.

A 2% concentration of alcohol is required to injure permanently a free-swimming unicellular organism, and $\frac{1}{4}\%$ is required to injure the heart muscle when applied directly; but as much as $\frac{1}{8}\%$ in the blood stream may seriously injure the whole body, especially through its effects upon nervous centers. Findings of other investigators on reflexes and on acts of skill are summarized, showing that alcohol must be regarded as physically of no benefit.

104. DARROW, C. W., Some Psychological Conditions of Efficiency. *Psychological Bulletin*, 1927, 24, 488-505.

A review dealing with recent studies of effects of drugs, diet, internal secretions and atmospheric conditions upon the psychological behavior of normal subjects. Bibliography of 156 titles, 1919 to 1927.

105. DASHIELL, J. F., A New Method of Measuring Reactions to Facial Expression of Emotion. Paper read before 1926 meeting of American Psychological Ass'n. Abstracted in *Psychological Bulletin*, 1927, 24, 174-175.

Instead of matching photographs of emotional expression with the names of the emotions, children were asked to match them with incidents in a story. The result showed better correspondence as to the order of difficulty in judging emotions, and greater ability on the part of young children to discriminate between the subtler emotions.

106. DATNER, B., Nutritional Problems in Neurology and Psychiatry. *Zsch. f. d. ges. Neurologie u. Psychiatry*, 1927, 111, 632-660.

Case histories indicate that diet planned to render the system alkaline has a wholesome effect upon anxiety neuroses, intoxications, epilepsy, and certain neuralgias.

107. DAVIDSON, M. R. & MACPHAIL, A. H., Psychological Testing in a Women's College. *Personnel Journal*, 1927, 6, 266-275.

Correlation of the Brown Intelligence Examination with college grades is about .50, but is raised to .70 by adding preparatory school grades.

108. DAVIE, T. M., Tryparsamide Therapy in General Paralysis of the Insane. *Journal of Mental Science*, 1927, 73, 217-225.

Cases show marked improvement on administration of tryparsamide, sometimes independent of serological improvement.

109. DAVIES, M. & HUGHES, A. G., An Investigation into the Comparative Intelligence and Attainments of Jewish and non-Jewish Children. *British Journal of Psychology*, 1927, 18, 134-146.

Further evidence for the intellectual superiority of Jewish children 8 to 14 years of age, these coming from three London schools.

110. DAVIS, J., Testing the Social Attitudes of Children in the Government Schools in Russia. *American Journal of Sociology*, 1927, 32, 947-952.

American children ranked banking highest among 45 occupations, with college professor, doctor, clergyman, lawyer, and auto manufacturer next. The lowest were coal miner, jan-

itor, waiter, teamster, hod carrier, street cleaner, and the lowest ditch-digger. Children in Soviet Russia rank the peasant first and give high places to member of Central Executive Committee of the party, mechanic, civil engineer, teacher, doctor, and aviator. The least desirable were salesman, house porter, owner of a store, waiter, banker, small store keeper, manager of a small factory, prosperous business man, and minister last.

111. DAVIS, K. B., Periodicity of Sex Desire. *American Journal of Obstetrics & Gynecology*, 1927.

Questionnaire responses from 1,000 married women, college graduates at least five years out of college, were obtained and compared with 1,000 unmarried subjects of similar status; questionnaires were anonymous. 868 of the unmarried recognized sex feeling, and 272 of these its periodicity. The period of greatest desire is in the vicinity of the menstrual period. The sex adjustments of the unmarried group showed masturbation 60%, homosexual 16%, intercourse 11%. For the married group before marriage results were: masturbation, 88%, homosexual, 16%, intercourse 7%.

112. DEARBORN, FRANCES R., What Does Honesty Mean to Third and Fourth Grade Children? *Journal of Educational Method*, January 1927, 205.

A questionnaire given to third and fourth grade pupils asked where they had heard the word honesty. School was mentioned 11 times, community 5 times, home 3, and church 2. Variations in ideas of honesty were brought out by children's responses to a series of stories involving honesty situations. Lying was more easily identified and condemned than other forms of dishonesty.

113. DENWORTH, K. M., The Effect of Length of School Attendance upon Mental and Educational Ages. *27th Yearbook National Society for the Study of Education*, Pt. II, 1927, 67-91.

An investigation carried out in an elementary school in Manhattan enrolling about 2,000 pupils. 700 pupils were chosen, all of them from English-speaking homes, 9 to 12 years of age, and having complete records. Variability of attendance was highest for the youngest pupils, and decreased with increase in age. Correlation between school attendance and educational age, .30. Correlations between mental and educational ages averaged .78. The regression equation for predicting standard educational scores is: $z_1 = .692z_2, .171z_3, .124z_4$, where z_2, z_3 , and z_4 represent intelligence, school attendance, and age.

114. DE VORE, EMILY, Improvement of Practice Teaching as suggested by Graduates of One Year's Teaching Experience.

Educational Administration & Supervision, December 1927, 611-624.

Questionnaire responses from 40 recent graduates of eight teacher training schools who have had one year's teaching experience suggest that these students would like more administrative work by the critic; an explanation of the purport of the lesson beforehand so they may know what to look for; written plans until they have demonstrated their ability to teach without them; written criticism as well as a private conference; more feeling of comradeship with the critic.

115. DIGGINS, ELMER, A Statistical Study of National Prejudices. *Master's Essay, Columbia University, 1927.*

Questionnaires answered by 307 subjects, of whom 87 were foreign students from International House, 24 Americans living there, the remainder students in Columbia, Indiana, and Occidental College, indicate a preference for nacio-racial groups in the following order: 1. American, 2. English, 3. French, 4. German, 5. Norwegian, 6. Russian, 7. Japanese, 8. Greek, 9. Chinese, 10. Hindu. Familiarity with the language of a group increased the rating given by about a third of a point on a scale of ten. While travel experience was limited, it seemed to raise the status of a group 1.4 points on a scale of ten. Acquaintance with individuals of that national group raised the rating 3.7 points on a scale of ten.

116. DINSMORE, KATE, Social Guidance of Difficult Children. *Vocational Guidance Magazine, May 1927, 377.*

A 9-year old boy of average intelligence ignored by his stepfather, without companions of his own age, was stealing; long talks with a sympathetic, understanding principal and a big-brother arrangement brought about cure. Parents openly disagreeing about discipline, the father showing partiality to his 15-year-old son, seemed associated with egotism on the part of the older brother and a stubborn, argumentative, generally listless attitude on the part of the younger. An 8-year-old girl feeling very inferior and offensive had been siding with her father, whose lack of education and self-advancement in business made him the object of her mother's scorn. A 12-year-old boy, lazy, lying, stealing, was dominated by a mother who resented any interference from the father or teachers, blaming the boy's condition on a nervousness like her own, and the unfairness of school officials. A boy deserted by an alcoholic father had been disciplined by older brothers, and resented this to the point where he took an attitude of insubordination to any authority. A boy whose parents were divorced and remarried, neither of the homes being congenial to him, truanted constantly, told sob stories to strangers, but was cheerful, obedient, and apparently well-

adjusted when placed in an excellent boarding home.

117. DISTAD, H. W., A Study of the Reading Performance of Pupils under Different Conditions on Different Types of Materials. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 1927, 18, 247-258.*

Ten sixth-grade classes tried four types of assignment upon geographical, nature, narrative, and poetry subject matter. Undirected reading was clearly the poorest method. Reading to find the answer to questions raised by the group, or to find the answer to a general problem, seemed to be most efficient.

118. DOOLEY, LUCILLE, A Case of Dissociation Combined with Phobias and Compulsions. *American Journal of Psychiatry, September 1927, 245.*

A young woman of 25 complaining of amnesic episodes in which she was uncertain of her own identity (there being no evidence of epilepsy) was cured after ten psychoanalytic treatments, which indicated dissociations growing out of fear which arose when her lover died.

119. DORLAND, W. A. M., The Triumph of Maturity: I. The Age of the Master Work; II. The Achievements of Maturity Which the World Might Have Missed. *Welfare Magazine, 1927, Vol. 18 (Sept.-Dec.), 1307-1329, 1444-1466.*

A study of thinkers (astronomers, mathematicians, philosophers, playwrights, reformers, etc.) and workers (actors, artists, chemists, explorers, inventors, musical composers etc.) showed the thinkers beginning their life work at age 26, the workers at 22. Musical composers and actors began before 20; philosophers, reformers, satirists and humorists began after 26. Darwin, Carlyle, Rembrandt, Pope, and Socrates are said to have shown a cretinoid face. The 400 records give an average age of 50 for the master work; for chemists and physicists it is 41; dramatists, playwrights, poets, and inventors, 44; novelists, 46; explorers and warriors, 47; musical composers and actors, 48; artists and divines, 50; essayists and reformers, 51; physicians, surgeons, statesmen, 52; philosophers, 54; astronomers, mathematicians, satirists, and humorists, 56; historians, 57; naturalists and jurists, 58. 85% made significant contributions after the age of 50.

120. DOUGLASS, H. R., A Summary of the Experimental Data on Certain Phases of Memory. *Pedagogical Seminary, 1927, 34, 92-117.*

A review of experimental literature on the most economical unit for learning; the influence of various affective factors; the most favorable distribution of practice; the relative efficiency of manners of presentation; the in-

fluence of interpolated activity; the relation between degree of learning and retention; the relation between length of material and learning; the relative ease of learning and permanence. Bibliography of 40 titles.

121. DOUGLASS, HARL R., The Experimental Comparison of the Relative Effectiveness of Two Sequences in Supervised Study. *Univ. Oregon Pub. Educ. Ser.*, 1927, 1, No. 4, 170-218.

Ten pairs of experimental sections in a university high school were divided, half of them being taught in the study-recite sequence, the other half in the recite-study sequence. Tests at the beginning and end were objective in type, and endeavored to measure judgment, appreciation, methods of solution, information, and attitudes. The study-recite sequence seemed more effective in history, social science, and literature. On the whole differences were small and not clearly related to teachers' judgments or ability of students.

122. DOWNEY, J. E., Observation on the Validation of the Group Will-Temperament Test. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1927, 18, 592-600.

Correlation between the Downey tests and intelligence are in the neighborhood of .40. The differentiation between delinquent and non-delinquent girls was slight.

- 122-A. DOWNS, W. G., JR., Studies in the Causes of Dental Anomalies. *Genetics*, 1927, 12, 570-580.

Studying 647 cases of insane and feeble-minded, it appeared that where glandular factors were involved there was a disturbance of dentition in 50% of the cases, whereas cases glandularly normal showed only 17% of dental anomalies. Feeding pituitary to puppies did not influence the growth of teeth.

123. DRAGSTEDT, L. R., The Physiology of the Parathyroid Glands. *Physiological Review*, 1927, 7, 499-530.

A review of the literature. Bibliography.

124. DUNBAR, RUTH O., A Study of Posture and its Relationships. *American Physical Education Review*, February, March, and April, 1927, pages 75, 169, 254.

The Bancroft Triple Test for Posture was given to 17,984 pupils. 16% received Grade A, passing in all three phases of the test; 36% made B, passing the standing and marching tests; 34% made C, passing the first part of the standing test; 14% made D. A posture was most common in the higher grades; D posture was also somewhat more common in the higher grades. 33% of the D's were under weight, as were 16% of the A's. Academic grades were higher for the A group and decreased steadily to the D group. Basketball

distance throw had the best correlation with posture in a study of 960 boys ten to fifteen. Broad jump and high jump were also positively correlated with posture.

125. DUNLAP, KNIGHT, The Role of Eye Muscles and Mouth Muscles in the Expression of Emotions. *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, May 1927, 199.

Photographs were cut in two and rematched, the resulting expressions being judged by 50 men. Results indicated that the emotional expression of the composite photograph is most like that of the original from which the mouth is taken. This was especially true of pleased expressions.

126. DUREA, M. A., Social Factors in Dependency. *Training School Bulletin*, 1927, 24, 81-89.

In 227 cases of dependency, immorality was a contributing factor in 34%, broken homes in 37%.

127. EAGLESON, HELEN E., Periodic Changes in Blood Pressure, Muscular Coordination, and Mental Efficiency in Women. *Comparative Psychology Monographs*, March 1927, 1.

21 previous investigators found a decrease in blood pressure with the onset of the menstrual period. These experiments, using 28 readings a day on three subjects for five months, showed at the onset of the period a variable tendency to rise in blood pressure with lessening steadiness in hand and eye coordination and lessened efficiency in simple arithmetical work. Progress of the period showed decrease in blood pressure, increase in steadiness and efficiency.

128. FARP, J. R., The Smoking Habit and Mental Efficiency. *Lancet*, 1927, 213, 527.

A new study of the smokers and non-smokers at Antioch College, as a control to a study made in 1925; 231 non-smokers and 215 smokers were studied. No decline in scholarship is evidenced by 89 smokers who have been in the college for three years. During this year 10.5% of the heavy smokers of the college were dismissed for low scholarship, 6.7% of the lighter smokers, and 2.5% of the non-smokers.

129. ECKSTEIN, A., Zur Physiologie der Geschmacksempfindung und des Saugreflexes bei Säuglingen (On the physiology of the taste sensation and of the sucking reflex in infants). *Zsch. f. Kinderheilk.*, 1927, 45, 1-19.

Experiments on newborn babies showed a differentiation of taste stimuli with cane sugar, salt, quinine, and lemon juice. Reactions were

constant within the group, agreeing most nearly in the rejection of the bitter.

130. EDGERTON, H. A., An Abac for Finding the Standard Error of a Proportion and the Standard Error of the Difference of Proportions. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1927, 18, 127-128.

Given the two percentages to be compared, this device makes it possible to read directly the S. D. of the difference.

131. EDGERTON, H. A. & TOOPS, H. A., A Formula for Finding the Average Inter-correlation Coefficient of Unranked Raw Scores without Solving Any of the Individual Correlations. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1928, 19, 121-138.

Just that.

132. EDGERTON, H. A., & TOOPS, H. A., A Table to Facilitate the Calculation of the Probable Error of the Mean. *Educational Research Bulletin*, 1927, 6, 351-354.

Given the standard deviation of the distribution and the distribution, it is possible from this table to read the Probable Error of the mean.

133. EHINGER, G., Age et Déclin des Aptitudes. *Arch. de Psychologie*, 1927, 20, 318-323.

Some decrease in manual ability as measured by a series of five tests is found from the age of 26 on.

134. ELDER, HARRY E., Effect of the Summer Vacation on Silent Reading Ability in the Intermediate Grades. *Elementary School Journal*, March 1927, 541.

203 pupils, Grades III to VI, tested in May and again in September, showed an average gain during the summer of almost half a school grade.

135. ELKIND, HARRY, The Epidemiology of Mental Disease. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, April 1927, 623.

Statistical data for New York, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island indicate no change in number of first admissions to hospitals for mental disease since 1912 not accounted for in terms of better diagnosis, change of classifications, difference in legal procedure, and foreign immigration.

- 135-A. ELKINE, D., De l'Influence du Groupe sur les Fonctions de la Memoire (The influence of the group on memory functions). *J. de Psychol.*, 1927, 24, 827-830.

Forty unselected children from a school class were read lists of words and numbers to be repeated immediately and again the next day. Coefficients of memory were, on the average:

	Figures		Words	
	Individual Oral Trials	Group Written Trials	Individual Oral Trials	Group Written Trials
First element.....	0.7	1.1	1.2	1.6
Middle element	0.3	0.7	0.5	0.7
Last element	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.5
Words forgotten in group, 19 per 100; individually, 23 per 100.				

136. ENGLE, E. T., Gonad-Stimulating Hormone of Anterior Pituitary and Heterosexual Ovarian Grafts. *Proceedings Society Exper. Biol. & Med.*, 1927, 25, 83-84.

Transplantation of ovaries into male rats suggested that maturation of the ovary was facilitated by pituitary transplants.

137. EURICH, ALVIN C., The Relation of Achievement between College Fraternity and Non-fraternity Groups. *School & Society*, November 12, 1927, 624.

Considering the average mark 100, results from ten colleges showed the non-fraternity men making an average of 92, fraternity men of 95. Non-sorority women made an average of 107, sorority women, 109.

138. FABER, H. K., A Formula Expressing a General Relationship between Blood Pressure and Body Weight. *Proceedings Soc. Exper. Biol. & Med.*, 1927, 25, 77-80.

Data upon 1,000 children indicate an approximately straight line relationship between logarithms of weight and logarithms of blood pressure.

139. FARMER, E., The Study of Personal Differences in Accident Liability. *Journal National Institute of Industrial Psychology*, 1926-27, 8, 432-436.

Among workers equally exposed, those above the average in muscular tests (dotting, pursuit meter, and choice reaction-time) had an accident rate 48% lower than those not so successful in these tests. Tests of intelligence and temperament were less successful.

140. FARNSWORTH, PAUL R., The Effects of Nature and Nurture on Musicality. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Society for the Study of Education*, 1927, Part II, 233-247.

A brief survey of the literature (or some portions of it) dealing with the factors underlying musical ability.

141. FARR, CLIFFORD B., Bodily Structure, Personality, and Reaction Types. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, September 1927, 231.

Three experiments. 75 anthropometric measurements on each of 25 men, 15 schizophrenic and 10 manic depressive, showed the association of the former with the asthenic, the latter with the pyknic type. 45 females were also measured. With both men and women the Pignet constitutional index seemed to give the best correlations. The seclusive types of psychosis were again associated with the relatively elongated type, the affective personalities with the thickset physiques.

142. FEARING, F., Psychological Studies of Historical Personalities. *Psychological Bulletin*, 1927, 24, 521-539.

Bibliography of 41 titles. The point of view and method of attack in psychological interpretation has been largely derived from psychoanalysis; i.e., the majority of the interpretative studies have involved or implied the existence of such concepts as instinct, unconscious motivation, infantile sexuality, etc.

143. FEASEY, LYNETTE, Children's Appreciation of Poetry. *British Journal of Psychology*, XVIII, 1, 1927, 51.

Comments by 550 children on six poems recently studied.

144. FENTON, NORMAN, A Study of Student Honesty during Examinations. *School & Society*, September 10, 1927, 341.

A representative group of 31 college girls, planning to teach, were tested by means of (1) observing while supposedly reading; (2) observing from adjacent office; (3) placing them on their honor but using three students to observe. 63% used notes or copied in one or more of the situations, the percent for the three situations being respectively 32%, 39%, and 45%. Students of lower intelligence cheated more.

145. FERGUSON, JESSIE, A Few Case Studies of Probation Students with Notes Regarding Remedial Work. *Pressey, Research Adventures in University Teaching*, Public School Publishing Company, 1927, 22-29.

Six probation cases illustrating low I. Q. and overwork, poor health, physical fatigue, immature attitude, deficiency in elementary preparation, and lack of interest.

146. FERNBERGER, S. W., Bluffing on Examinations. *American Journal of Psychology*, 1927, 38, 155-156.

21 out of 29 summer school students wrote from one-half to three pages defining a non-existent word, "psychoterminality."

147. FISHER, T. RUSSELL, The Prevalence of Superstitious Beliefs. *Master's Essay*, Columbia University, 1927.

255 high school seniors believed an average of about 20 superstitious statements in a

list of 40. Boys believed 17.6, while girls believed 19.9. Nixon found a similar sex difference, scoring 10½ for 219 men and 12.3 for 140 women. Only about 5% of boys and girls admitted belief in superstitions concerning 13 and Friday. The three most frequent "superstitions" all concerned transfer of training and the possibility of improving the mind by various types of exercise.

148. FISHER, V. E., An Experimental Study of the Effects of Tobacco Smoking on Certain Psycho-physical Functions. *Comparative Psychology Monographs*, February 1927, 1.

Three young men, non-smokers, given two weeks of testing on arithmetic problems, smoking on alternate days, showed some slight difference favoring faster work after smoking. Twenty readings on the kymograph multiple choice apparatus showed slightly superior work on days when nicotineless cigars were smoked over days when none were smoked, but showed the best performance after smoking a real cigar. A test of steadiness given to four non-smokers, two occasional smokers, and two habitual smokers, showed some decrease of steadiness on smoking days. When the work period was lengthened and 4 smoking and 4 non-smoking days were compared for 7 reactors, the differences in achievement on psycho-physical tests were inconstant. In agreement with all other investigators, an increased pulse rate was found.

149. FISHER, V. E., A Few Notes on Age and Sex Differences in Mechanical Learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, November 1927, 562.

Ten 30-second periods of practice at a simple construction test, showed a correlation with Army Alpha of .20 for 74 girls and .34 for 80 boys. Fairly uniform improvement was found from age 9 to 13 among girls, and from age 9 to 14 among boys. The next two years showed a drop, but fifty adults tested showed markedly greater efficiency than any of the children.

150. FLEMING, E. G., Personality as Revealed by the Galvanometer. *American Journal of Psychology*, 1927, 38, 128-129.

In a group of 18 subjects electrical resistance of the skin yielded a positive correlation of .40 with ratings on nervous temperament, and of .44 on magnetic personality.

151. FLEMING, G. W. T. H., Introverted and Extraverted Tendencies of Schizoid and and Syntonic States as Manifested by Vocation. *Journal of Mental Science*, 1927, 73, 233-239.

Reports of an English county medical hospital for a period of the last 40 years, while involving a good many shifts in diagnosis, sug-

gests some connection between occupation and psychotic type. For certain occupations the number of patients showing a schizoid type of psychosis exceed the number showing a syntonic or a manic-depressive type. Among the most marked distinctions were: Engineers, 53 schizoid to 16 syntonic; students, 30 to 2; soldiers (enlisted men), 73 to 15. Farmers showed an excess of the syntonic group, 68 to 32; shepherds, cowmen, etc., showed a similar trend 22 to 0.

152. FLEMMING, CECIL WHITE & RUTLEDGE, SAMUEL A., The Importance of the Social and Economic Character of the Home for Pupil Guidance. *Teachers' College Record*, December 1927, 202.

Sims score card showed Horace Mann School girls far above average, 80% having maids (norm 15%), 70% of fathers having college education (norm 10%), etc. With a minimum level of quality 120 to 130 on the Sims scale, the correlation with intelligence was only .10; with marks, .02; with ratings on courtesies, —.10; on dependability, —.05.

153. FLINNER, IRA A., Reliability of Teachers' Estimates of Ability. *Education*, May 1927, 549.

An average of five judgments of ability of 246 high school boys to learn, estimates being given by experienced teachers with no more than 15 pupils per class, yielded a correlation of .72 with corrected Otis A and B Advanced Intelligence Test Scores.

154. FLOURNOY, H., Contagion Mentale (Communicated Insanity). *Revue Médicale Suisse Romande*, 1927, 940-952.

Several cases showing psychoses developing in a previously normal person because of continuous contact with a person of unbalanced mind.

155. FOSTER, J. C. & ANDERSON, J. E., The Young Child and His Parents. *Child Welfare Monograph Series No. 1*, Univ. of Minneapolis Press, 1927, pp. 190.

Summary of results of case studies of 118 children 2 to 7 years old. Emotional adjustments offer the largest number of problems; nervous habits, feeding problems, and conflicts with authority also occurred in over one-quarter of the cases. Over-dependence, handling genitals, over-imaginative behavior, improper language, and school difficulties were found in less than 10% of the cases. Boys had a mean of 3.1 problems per boy; girls a mean of 2.8; boys were more apt to show temper tantrums, fatigue, improper language, and school difficulties; sleeping problems were somewhat more frequent among girls. Number of problems increased, in general, with age. Fears reached a maximum at the age of three, temper tantrums at two, other emotional problems at six. Difficulties in sleep-

ing were most frequent among 3-year-olds; problems involving toilet habits were relatively constant throughout the period; feeding problems were at their maximum at age 3 to 4.

156. FOSTER, SYBIL, A Study of the Personality-Make-Up and Social Setting of Fifty Jealous Children. *Mental Hygiene*, January 1927, 53-77.

A comparison between 50 jealous children and 100 other children referred to problem clinics for problems in which jealousy was not involved. Two-thirds of the jealous children were girls. Major symptoms correlated specifically with jealousy were (1) disturbance of sleep; (2) hyperactivity; (3) favoritism of child by one parent; (4) pugnacity; (5) attention demanding. Major related factors of possible causal significance were (1) punishment used as a means of discipline at home; (2) being a girl; (3) being under six years of age; (4) lacking opportunities for social relationships; (5) being the oldest child; (6) being teased unduly at home.

157. FOX, E. J., The Diagnostic Value of Group Tests as Determined by the Qualitative Differences Between Normal and Feeble-minded Children. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1927, 11, 127-134.

63 feeble-minded and 63 normal children having a median mental age of about 7 years, on four primary group tests showed significant differences. The normal children were 7 years old, the feeble-minded 13 years old. Variation among the feeble-minded was greater, and they excelled in tests involving experience rather than complicated directions or new situations.

158. FRANKLIN, E. E., The Permanence of the Vocational Interests of Junior High School Pupils. *Vocational Guidance Magazine*, 1927, 5, 152-156.

1,500 junior high school pupils, choosing the occupation they would most like to enter, were asked to restate the choice at three ensuing four-month intervals. They showed a high degree of permanence, four out of five choosing the same general type of occupation a year later.

159. FRAZER, J. G., Man, God, and Immortality; thoughts on human progress. *New York: Macmillan*, 1927, pp. xvi + 437, \$3.00.

Generalizations based upon anthropological evidence previously published. In general the progress of man through magic and religion towards science represents the history of thought.

160. FREDERICK, R., An Investigation into some Social Attitudes of High School Pupils. *School & Society*, 1927, 25, 410-412.

A study of students in seven high schools using a true-false test: 59% believe that as a nation we have never mistreated the people of any other race or nation; 59% say that no patriotic American would admit that any other country is superior to the United States in any important respect; 57% believe that the American people place a higher value on law and order than do any other people; 32% dislike the Japanese; 29% dislike the Chinese; 22% dislike Negroes; 11% dislike Mexicans; 62% thought the Japanese treacherous and deceitful; 54% thought the Russians an inferior people. 64% named the Ku Klux Klan as working toward international peace. 58% believe the United States should have the largest army and the most powerful navy in the world. 38% thought the United States should conquer, annex, and develop Mexico.

161. FREEMAN, FRANK N., & OTHERS, The Influence of Environment on the Intelligence, School Achievement, and Conduct of Foster Children. *27th Yearbook Society for the Study of Education*, 1927, Part I, 103-217.

Siblings reared in different foster homes showed a correlation of intelligence scores ranging from .19 to .25; the usual coefficient of fraternal resemblance is .50. Mean I. Q. of foster children in poorer homes was .86, that of their siblings placed in better homes was .95. Unrelated children reared in the same foster home showed intelligence correlations (Stanford-Binet) of .25 to .37. Children tested after four years in foster homes made somewhat better scores than they had before placement. Children in the better homes made more gain than children in poorer homes. Children adopted at an early age gained more than those adopted later.

162. FRENAY, A. D., The Suicide Problem in the United States. *Boston, Badger*, 1927, pp. 200.

Since the World War there has been a decrease in the suicide rate in the United States. Suicide in the United States is about average in comparison with other countries. The rate among Negroes is only about one-fourth as large as the rate for whites. The rate for women is only about one-third that for men. The suicide rate is lower for Catholics than for Protestants, although especially prevalent among the foreign population.

163. FREUD, ANNA, Introduction to the Technique of Child Analysis. *Nervous & Mental Disease Pub. Co., Washington*, pp. 62, \$1.50.

The author describes her experience in getting positive transference from children, using night and day dreams and free drawings in connection with the analysis.

164. FROBENIUS, K., Über die Zeitliche Orientierung im Schlaf und Einige Aufwachphänomene (On time orientation in sleep and some phenomena of awakening). *Zsch. f. Psychol.*, 1927, 103, 100-110.

Experiments carried on with five adults for 250 nights indicated that most sleepers woke during the 5-minute interval preceding the time point intentionally fixed before sleep. This seemed to be independent of external conditions and of exercise.

165. FRYER, DOUGLASS, Interest and Ability in Educational Guidance. *Journal of Educational Research*, June 1927, 27.

Correlation between liking for a subject and estimates of ability in the subject were .85 for elementary school, .86 for high school, and .89 for college. When actual grades were used instead of estimates of ability, correlations fell to .63 for elementary school, and .60 for high school. Another study of 100 students at the University of Utah showed correlations between interest and estimated ability of .57, .70, and .60; interest and ability according to school marks, .10, .33, .28. Such facts are interpreted as meaning that there is a probability less than 20% better than pure guess for guidance of the individual based upon his interest in subjects. The correlation between estimated ability and school mark ability seems to be between .40 and .50.

166. FRYER, DOUGLASS, Predicting Abilities from Interests. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1927, 11, 212-225.

This study was carried out with three groups; one, a group of 65 students in a western college, another, 67 women in an eastern college, and the third, 120 young men applying at a New York vocational guidance bureau. If the intelligence of the subject came within three years mental age of the average intelligence of workers in the occupation, it was considered to be perfect resemblance, or vocational adjustment. For the college students there was fairly close agreement. Proctor's study of 806 high school boys and girls showed 59% having the intelligence required by their ambition. Feingold's study of 512 elementary school graduates finds 46% making suitable choices. Among 1,816 cases in all, about one-half make a suitable choice. The correlation between subject's intelligence and the average intelligence of the vocational ambition was —.17 for the eastern college girls, .22 for the western students, .58 for students in advanced vocational schools. Within the occupations it is .38.

167. FURFEY, PAUL H., Some Factors Influencing the Selection of Boys' Chums. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1927, 11, 47-51.

Almack has previously shown a correlation, based upon 387 school children, of .48 between age of child and age of chum, and of .53 between mental ages of child and chum. This study, covering 296 chums, included only 62 mutual pairs, involving 35 individuals about 13 years of age. 45% of the pairs were boys living in the same neighborhood; 89% were in the same room at school. Correlation between chums on chronological age was .39; developmental age, .37; height, .34; mental age, .24; weight, .22; these being raised slightly by correction for attenuation.

168. FURFEY, PAUL H., Tests for Personality Traits. *Catholic Education Review*, December, 1927, 614.

A review of some of the literature published in this field, 1912-1927.

169. FURUKAWA, T., A Study of Temperament by Means of Human Blood Groups. *Japanese Journal of Psychology*, 1927, 2, No. 4, 612-634.

269 girls in a Tokio teacher training school estimated temperaments of themselves and their classmates. According to the iso-agglutinin tests, type I and type III include 82% of the active group, whereas types II and IV include 80% of the passive group. Passive as contrasted with active, meant sensitive in social relations, hesitating in decisions, bashful, disliking to mix with others, tending to withdraw within oneself, avoiding social intercourse, not active, easily suggestible, changeable in opinion.

170. GANS, H. M. & MILEY, H. H., Ergographic Studies on Adrenalectomized Animals. *American Journal of Physiology*, 1927, 82, 1-6.

Rats from which adrenal glands have been removed do less than 10% of the muscular work of normal animals.

171. GANTER, R., Über Erbllichkeit bei der Epilepsie und dem Schwachisinn (On heredity in epilepsy and feeble-mindedness). *Arch. Psychiatry u. Nervenkr.*, 1927, 81, 395-429.

A study of 503 epileptics showed alcoholism in the ancestry in 13%, mental disease in 3%. 853 children from families with hereditary taint showed 19% of mental abnormality compared with 12% among 769 children from untainted families. Among 342 feeble-minded children the author found 18% without hereditary taint, 25% with hereditary taint, 19% illegitimate, and 43% organically conditioned.

172. GARDNER, C. A., Causes of High School Failures. *School Review*, February 1927, 108.

Use of the group conference method in groups of about 20 to discover causes for

failure. Pupils were most apt to suggest as causes for failure: 1. lack of home study; 2. dislike of the subject; 3. little studying; 4. discouraged; 5. insufficient effort; 6. dislike of teacher; 7. timid about answering. Teachers were most apt to suggest as causes for failure: 1. irregular attendance; 2. failure on tests; 3. lack of study generally; 4. lack of effort; 5. mentally slow; 6. lack of home study; 7. poor foundation.

173. GARTH, T. R., The Intelligence of Mixed Blood Indians. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1927, 11, 268-275.

National Intelligence Test scores of 700 Indians indicate a correlation with amount of white blood as high as .42. Amount of white blood proved more influential than difference in schooling.

174. GASKILL, P. C., FENTON, N., & PORTER, J. P., Judging the Intelligence of Boys from their Photographs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1927, 11, 394-403.

Standardized photographs of 11-year-old boys with I. Q.'s ranging from 18 to 171 were ranked by 274 psychology students, giving an average correlation between measured intelligence and estimated intelligence of .43.

175. GATES, ARTHUR I., The Nature and Limit of Improvement Due to Training. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Soc. Study of Education*, 1927, Part I, 441-460.

Two paired groups of about 40 children each were given training in tapping for 18 days, until improvement tapered off. Practice continued for one group for a period of six months, and then both groups spent another 17 days in practice. The group without practice during the six-month period were slightly inferior to the group which had been practicing, when they first returned to work, but after the 17 days of revived practice they were equal to the children who had had six months more of training. One of two other paired groups was given training in memory for digits over a period of five months; a distinct gain over the unpracticed group appeared, but 4½ months later the two groups were almost identical. Apparently for tapping and remembering digits a considerable part is played by maturation, and education's contribution is primarily in terms of rather quickly learned techniques.

176. GAULT, —, Review of Criminology since October, 1925. *Psychological Bulletin*, 1927, 24, 692.

One of the occasional summaries, bringing the reader up to date in the relevant literature.

177. GENCERELLI, J. A., Mutual Interference in the Evolution of Concepts. *American Journal of Psychology*, 1927, 38, 639-646.

A group having previously learned a different association with 81 symbols found it more difficult to learn a new association than did controls not so trained. Correlation of initial and conflict series for the test group was .15, for the control group .36, the probable error of difference being .18.

178. GESELL, ARNOLD, Precocious Puberty and Mental Maturation. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Soc. Study of Education*, 1927, 1, 399-409.

Cases of two girls, one menstruating at three years, the other at eight; the first was slightly below average in intelligence, the second definitely feeble-minded.

179. GESELL, A. & LORD, E. E., A Psychological Comparison of Nursery School Children from Homes of Low and High Economic Status. *Pedagogical Seminary*, 1927, 34, 339-356.

A comparison of 11 pairs of pre-school children, all from English-speaking American homes, but part coming from private residences and part from tenements, indicated a superiority of the children from the private homes in most fields. Fifteen tests covered language, practical, and personal-social behavior. The greatest excess for the private-home group was in spontaneity and responsiveness. The tenement children excelled in self-care, ability to wash face and hands, brush teeth, comb hair, button clothes, etc.

180. GIARDINI, G. I., Crime, Causes, and Criminal. *Pedagogical Seminary*, March 1927, 144-168.

A study of a western state penitentiary showed 74% of homicides, 52% of robberies, and 8% of larcenies committed with guns. Guns were used slightly more frequently by Negroes than by whites in stealing, slightly less frequently by Negroes in homicide. A study of period of sentence shows that 95% of those committed in 1925 will come out within ten years, the average period being 3.7 years for this 95%. Ten case studies illustrate the place of suggestible cupidity, alcohol, sordid home, and gang life in producing crimes.

181. GILMORE, M. E., Coaching for Intelligence Tests. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1927, 18, 119-121.

Evidence from two groups of 32 students each indicates that the group taking the Otis test for a second time after 12 weeks made an average gain of 9%; whereas the other group, which had been coached on similar material during this time, made an average gain of 19%.

182. GITTING, I. E., Correlation of Mental and Physical Traits in University of Arizona Freshmen Women. *American*

Physical Education Review, 1927, 32, 569-583.

A study of 75 freshmen women showed positive correlations between mental score and traits of age, weight, height, and lung capacity, varying between .15 and .20. Correlation of mental test and scholarship was .82; weight and scholarship .34. Ratings on poise showed no clear relation to other factors, except mental ability, .24.

183. GOOD, C. V., Objectives of Secondary Schools in 1926 and 1927. *Education*, June 1927, 585-592.

Counting the objectives mentioned in courses of study for junior and senior high schools in 26 states, those most frequently mentioned were vocational preparation and citizenship. The five other cardinal principles (health, leisure, fundamental processes, home membership, ethical character) stood next in frequency.

184. GOOD, CARTER V., The Supplementary Reading Assignment. *Warwick & York*, 1927.

Classes studying educational psychology showed superiority in tests on textbook material in sections carrying on intensive study of the texts (average 3.4 minutes per page), and in tests of zoning information. Superiority on general information in the field, problem solving, ability to make a digest, appeared on the side of the section doing extensive reading (average 1.8 minute per page). Comparison of those groups tested after one reading of certain material with groups tested after opportunity to reread the material once, showed a score of 13 for single readings, of 14 for double readings, a gain not worth the extra time.

185. GOODENOUGH, FLORENCE L., The Consistency of Sex Differences in Mental Traits at Various Ages. *Psychological Review*, 1927, 34, 440-462.

Summary of earlier evidence favors a slight superiority for boys in arithmetical, mechanical, and general information tests, while girls excel slightly in verbal and memory tests. Additional tests of 50 boys and 50 girls at each age from 2 to 4 inclusive showed the girls superior in repeating digits and sentences, picture memory, memory for taps and for commands, picture description, naming parts of the body, naming colors, etc., for 30 tests, largely verbal or memory. Boys excelled in only three; imitation of movement, selecting the longer of two lines, and telling right from left.

186. GOODENOUGH, FLORENCE L., A Preliminary report on the Effect of Nursery School Training upon the Test Scores of Young Children. *27th Yearbook*

Nat'l. Soc. Study of Education, 1927, Part I, 361-369.

Average I. Q. increase for 28 children attending a nursery school did not differ significantly from the gain shown by a control group. This similarity appeared even on test items particularly favored by the nursery school environment.

187. GOODENOUGH, F. L. & LEAHY, A. M., The Effect of Certain Family Relationships upon the Development of Personality. *Pedagogical Seminary, 1927, 34, 45-71.*

293 cases studied by the Minneapolis Child Guidance Clinic indicated that oldest children show a significant tendency to lack of aggressiveness, which is extreme in about one case out of five. Only children are most aggressive and self-confident.

188. GORDON, H., OSTRANDER, J. M., & COUNSELL, S., The Adrenalin Glycemic Curve as a Diagnostic Aid in Psychiatry. *American Journal of Psychiatry, 1927, 7, 183-207.*

A comparison of 7 schizophrenics, 5 manic depressives, 6 sufferers from hepatic disease, and a group of 7 other psychopaths with 8 normal subjects varying in age, sex, and weight, gave some indication of a distinctive well-defined peak in the blood-sugar curve with a slow return to the primary level for the manic depressive patients. The dementia praecox type was less sharp with a more rapid return.

189. GRAY, W. S., Summary of Reading Investigations I and II, July 1, 1925, to June 30, 1926. *Elementary School Journal, 1927, 27, 456-466, 495-510.*

Just that.

190. GREENE, ELIZABETH, Results of Five Years Psychiatric Work in New York City High Schools. *Mental Hygiene, July 1927, 542.*

517 girls referred to the Girls' Service League of America as problem children were for the most part born in this country of foreign-born parents. 72% had favorable homes, 82% a normal family history; only 10 had I. Q.'s above 120. After 5 years 50% are still in school and 30% working. About 30% of the cases followed up seem to have been completely successful, 40% partially successful; 10% partially unsuccessful, and 20% completely unsuccessful.

191. GREENE, KATHARINE S., The Influence of Specialized Training on Tests of General Intelligence. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Society for the Study of Education, I, 421-428.*

A study of groups of 50 children about 7 years old showed that those children given

practice in the specific material of the Stanford-Binet gave an average net gain in ability of 20 to 30 I. Q. points, whereas training in similar but not identical material gave an average gain of only 4 or 5 points. These gains diminish with time.

192. GUILER, W. S., The Predictive Value of Group Intelligence Tests. *Journal of Educational Research, December 1927, 365-374.*

Three group tests given to 80 freshmen at Miami University yielded correlations with average scholarship ranging from .47 to .52. All tests predicted achievement for the highest quarter and lowest quarter of the students, better than they did for the middle half. There was no clear relation between the type of intelligence test material and the ability to predict success in particular fields; for example, a reading test predicted ability in mathematics better than did the arithmetic elements.

193. GUTHRIE, E. R., Measuring Introversion and Extraversion. *Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology, April-June, 1927, 82-88.*

Comparison of four possible indices of introversion as contrasted with extraversion (1. Colgate Personal Inventory Form C2; 2. lack of rapport with current student life; 3. Jung Association Test; 4. inability to judge persons) showed no appreciable intercorrelation, and no relationship between any of them and intelligence or scholarship, except a correlation of .40 between intelligence and campus information. Data were based on about 300 Washington University students.

194. GUTHRIE, E. R., Measuring Student Opinion of Teachers. *School & Society, 1927, 25, 175-176.*

87 teachers ranked by five or more students (among 285 of a class in psychology at the University of Washington) showed average intercorrelation of individual rankings of .26. Correlation of the average of half of the rankings of a teacher with the average of the other half was .79. Repetition a month later gave a correlation of .89 with the originals. Another class yielded a self-correlation of .72 in the same fashion. A rating sheet proved to have a slightly higher reliability than the ranking method, .30 as against .26. Student judgments of the faculty appeared more consistent than faculty judgments of the faculty. In rating traits, freshmen emphasized being serious, clear, definite, and authoritative; whereas seniors stressed originality, wide information, sense of humor.

195. HADLEY, C. V. D., Transfer Experiments with Guinea Pigs. *British Journal of Psychology, 18, 2, October 1927, 189.*

Eleven guinea pigs trained to chose a 3-inch square rather than a 1-inch square, chose an 8-inch square rather than the 3-inch square to which they had been trained. When trained to choose a 3-inch rather than an 8-inch square, the 1-inch was chosen rather than the 3-inch. Variation in illumination brought the same results as variation in size. The relational, not the actual, factors determined the transfer.

196. HALL, S. B., The Blood Pressure in Psychoneurosis. *Lancet*, 1927, 213, 540-543.

A study of 71 cases found blood pressure in neurasthenia and psychasthenia; systolic blood pressure was found consistently more than 10 mm. below the average of 120 plus 1/5 of subject's age. A few cases involving anxiety neuroses were abnormally high.

197. HALLORAN, CHARLES O., A Morality Test. *Journal of Education*, February 7, 1927, 147.

Twenty-four multiple choice items testing moral knowledge. No data.

198. HAMRIN, S. A., A Comparative Study of Ratings of Teachers-in-Training and Teachers-in-Service. *Elementary School Journal*, September 1927, 39.

Correlations between two supervisors independently rating 88 teachers in training was .32. Correlation for 108 teachers between ratings by supervisors while in training and rating by superintendents at the middle of the first year in the field were .06 for one set of supervisors, .23 for another. Ratings were made on 54 traits, agreement being highest on general appearance, reliability, academic thoroughness, daily preparation, attention, and response of class. Correlations of superintendents' ratings with Army Alpha, .04; with school marks, .05. For supervisors in training school these correlations were .20 and .45.

199. HANSON, F. B., Is Insanity Ever Hereditary? *Journal of Heredity*, 1927, 18, 285-286.

Among forty individuals running through 4.5 generations of one family 9 were insane and 3 peculiar, all but one of these being women.

200. HANSON, F. B. & HEYS, F., Alcohol and Eye Defects. *Journal of Heredity*, 1927, 18, 345-350.

Ten generations of rats exposed to alcohol fumes until drunk every day from the age of 20 days to adulthood, while showing injury to the eyes of the exposed animals to a severe degree, showed no effect upon the 1688 young born in this strain.

201. HARTSHORNE, HUGH & MAY, MARK, Personality and Character Tests. *Psychological Bulletin*, July 1927.

202. HARTSHORNE, HUGH & MAY, MARK, Testing the Knowledge of Right and Wrong. *Monograph No. 1, Religious Education Association*, July 1927.

Moral knowledge and judgment tests showed a correlation of about .50 with mental age. Correlation with age among public school children was practically 0; correlation between a good manners test and other tests of moral knowledge was .56, which remained .27 after intelligence was held constant. Intercorrelations among moral knowledge tests was seldom higher than .50. Correlation with cheating was -.54, indicating a tendency for the most cheating to be done by the persons making the lowest score; with intelligence constant this remains -.40. Children showed little tendency to try to give approved answers. Correlation with a lying test and moral knowledge was practically 0. 69% of answers unlike a key indicating what adults thought right they refused to change, when given opportunity to do so. Correlation of moral knowledge of child and that of mother .49; child and father .40; child and friends .35; child and club leader .14; child and public school teacher .03; child and Sunday school teacher .00. 91% of those who believed it right to let another person copy their work and hand it in as his own, actually did cheat. 93% of those who thought it right for a boy to cheat in order to help his class win, actually cheated. Correlation between the average moral knowledge of group and average conduct of group proved higher than correlations with individuals would justify, indicating the presence of a group code.

203. HEIDBREDE, EDNA, Introversion and Extraversion in Men and Women. *Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology*, April-June, 1927.

Tests of 100 college men as compared with 100 college women showed no difference in average tendency toward introversion, although significant differences appeared in certain characteristics. Women are more likely to: shrink when facing a crisis, feel hurt readily, hesitate about making decisions on ordinary questions, dislike any process of selling or persuading anyone to adopt a certain point of view (except in religious fields), worry over possible misfortunes, be absentminded, admire perfection of form in literature, keep a diary, prefer to read a thing rather than experience it. Men are more likely to be outspoken, to prefer to work things out on their own hook, to be thrifty, to avoid social leadership, to prefer intellectual to athletic competitive amusements, to be painstaking and conservative about dress, and to turn their at-

tention inward. In how far these differences are the causes or the effects of the social standards they resemble is not known.

204. HEIDBREDER, E. F., The Normal Inferiority Complex. *Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology*, 1927, 22, 243-258.

A rating scale was constructed, consisting of 137 traits which, according to Adler, would be symptomatic of the condition in question. The scale was so arranged that sometimes the trait as stated, sometimes its opposite, would be characteristic of an inferiority complex. Ratings were made on a 5-point scale. Subjects were students in introductory courses in psychology in the University of Minnesota; 120 men, 148 women. Each subject received 3 copies of the scale, on one of which he was asked to rate himself, and on the other two to secure ratings of himself from two individuals who knew him. Results, therefore, are based on 360 sets of ratings for men and 444 for women. Reliability of the scale is indicated by an r of $.73 \pm .03$ between original tests and retests on 147 of the original subjects, after an interval of six weeks. The scores gave a normal distribution for both men and women, on both self and associates ratings. Women show greater inferiority than men, according to both self-ratings and associates' ratings. Self-ratings show more inferiority than do ratings by others.

205. HEILMAN, J. D., The Relative Influence upon Educational Achievement of Some Hereditary and Environmental Factors. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Society for the Study of Education*, 1927, Part II.

Use of a new statistical method (Wright method of Path Coefficients) to determine the relative influence of mental age, school attendance, and socio-economic status upon variation in all educational achievement of 828 10-year-old unselected school children. This analysis leads to the conclusion that 50% of the variation in educational achievement was connected with original nature, 13% with differences in school training, about 1% with socio-economic status of the home, and 36% to unmeasured factors.

206. HELSON, H., Insight in the White Rat. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 1927, 10, 378-397.

Rats learned to respond to the darker of two food compartments, even though the absolute illumination varied. They failed to learn to respond to the darker or lighter of two gray papers, although the wrong when chosen was punished by a shock, and the right one rewarded by food.

207. HENIG, M. S., Intelligence and Safety. *Journal of Educational Research*, 1927, 16, 81-87.

Apprentices given the Army Alpha test showed much greater susceptibility to accidents in the C- and D levels.

208. HENRY, GEORGE W., Gastro-intestinal Motor Functions in Schizophrenia. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, July 1927, 135.

X-ray observation of 51 cases suggests that in schizophrenia some abnormalities in gastrointestinal motor behavior accompany the acute cases. The reaction is like that corresponding to strong emotion in animals.

209. HIATT, L. R., Junior High School Citizenship. *School Review*, December 1927, 756.

Opinions of 140 eighth grades in Kansas show conventional notions of what a good citizen should be.

210. HILDRETH, GERTRUDE, The Effect of School Environment upon Stanford-Binet Tests of Young Children. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Society for the Study of Education*, 1927, 1, 355-359.

A group of 41 superior pupils attending nursery schools or kindergartens were compared with 48 highly selected pupils who had not had such an experience. The group with kindergarten training showed a median I. Q. of 120, the non-school group of 114, although after 18 months of regular school work there appeared a difference of only two points in favor of the school group.

211. HILL, EDWARD L., A Citizenship Rating Scale. *Education*, February 1927, 362-371.

A proposed scale or check list covering 44 points under such headings as: health practices, cooperation, industry, reliability, courtesy, efficiency, and emotional strength. Emphasis is placed upon the traditional virtues in each category.

212. HILLYER, J., Reluctantly Told. New York: Macmillan, 1927, pp. xvii + 205.

The inside story of the way in which a series of shocks led to insanity, of the state of mind during four years in the hospital, and the way in which psychological counsel helped toward a rational and peaceful attitude of mind.

213. HINSIE, LELAND E., Psychoanalytic Treatment of Schizophrenia. *Psychological Quarterly*, July 1927, 313.

Two cases in which psychoanalysis proved effective in developing the insight of individuals who had been sent to the hospital with schizophrenic psychoses. One case took 2½ years, the other 2 years. Each has been followed up for some years since.

214. HOCKETT, J. A., A Determination of the Major Social Problems of American Life. *Teachers' College Contributions to Education*, No. 281, 1927.

Analysis of 23 books by "frontier thinkers," of current events presented in the *Literary Digest*, and of matters discussed editorially in the best magazines, shows 396 problems and issues in which children should be educated if they are to understand contemporary American social, political, and economic life. Among the more important are:

1. Developing an enlightened and effective public opinion.
2. Lessening control by big owners, our financial autocracy.
3. Developing research and science.
4. Securing absolute justice for all, rich or poor, black or white.
5. Safeguarding civil liberties and individual or minority rights.
6. Securing service instead of profit motives in business.
7. Making constitution and law more responsive to social change.
8. Giving fixed tenure, doing away with unemployment.
9. Reducing advertising to a minimum.
10. Organizing industry democratically, freeing workers to give full energy to their work, abolishing the dullness and monotony and exploitation of some industries.
11. Extending provision of free goods and service by state.
12. Abolition or limitation of the inheritance of wealth.
13. Elimination of race and class prejudice.
14. Promoting the free, vigorous, critical, open-minded approach to social problems.
15. Elimination of war and imperialism, raising the tone of international morality.

215. HOEFER, CAROLINE & HARDY, MATTIE C., The Influence of Improvement in Physical Condition on Intelligence and Educational Achievement. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Society for the Study of Education*, 1927, I, 371-387.

A study of 343 children 8 to 11 years old indicated a consistent tendency for children in better physical condition to have higher ratings in education and achievement. Rate of growth in grip, weight, and shoulder breadth was unrelated to gain in I. Q.

216. HOLBROOK, D. W., Things which Affect College Success. *Industrial Psychology*, 1927, 3, 187-190.

Students whose brothers and sisters went to college make better college records than those lacking this factor. Those who receive the highest honors in college are among those who have done well in high school, but those who made excellent marks in high school did not always succeed in college. More than

half of those on probation had at least one failure to their credit; about one-third of the average students have failed in a high school course, whereas less than a quarter of the superior students have any high school failures. Changing high schools seemed somewhat to be associated with lower scholastic achievement.

217. HOLLINGSWORTH, LETA S., Subsequent History of E., 10 years after the Initial Report. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, October 1927, 385.

The first report was made in 1917; E. was at that time 8 years old with an I. Q. of at least 187. In 1922 a second report was made; he was then 13 years old and a sophomore in college. He graduated from college a few days before his 15th birthday with the degree of B.A., taking general honors, Phi Beta Kappa honors, and the English seminary prize. A year later he took his M.A. Now at the age of 18 he has practically finished the requirements for Ph.D. Physically he is in excellent health; weight 194.75, height 6 feet 1 inch. The summary of his development shows that the superior magnitudes both of mental caliber and of physical size, so markedly present at the age of 8 years, are maintained as growth terminates.

218. HOLLINGSWORTH, L. S. & COBB, MARGARET U., Children Clustering at 165 I. Q. and Children Clustering at 146 I. Q. Compared for Three Years in Achievement. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Society Study of Education*, 1927, II.

Twenty children of average I. Q. 165 compared with 20 children of average I. Q. 146, all of them being about 8 years old at the beginning of the experiment, were followed for three years in a school which endeavors to give every child maximum opportunity. The brighter group surpassed the other at the beginning and at the end of the period, the difference between the two groups increasing as the task increases in complexity.

219. HOLY, T. C. & RUCH, G. M., Efficiency of Training as Affected by the Cost of Instruction, *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Society for the Study of Education*, 1927, Part II.

No significant correlation appeared between school costs and efficiency of instruction as measured by either a high school content examination or grades earned during the first year at the university. Intelligence was held constant, and only pupils who had spent all 12 years in the same school system were included.

220. HUBER, M. B., BRUNER, HERBERT B., & CURRY, CHARLES M., Children's Interests in Poetry. *Rand McNally*, 1927, pp. 233.

100 poems for each grade from 1 to IX, chosen from the 30 best literature courses among 900 examined, were distributed to 60,000 children in school experimental centers. Every poem was studied by at least five grades, and compared with others studied by that grade. 38 of the 573 poems included received so few votes as to indicate that they might be eliminated; these include: Blow, Blow, Thou Winter Wind, Under the Greenwood Tree, The Mountains Are a Lonely Folk, A Wet Sheet and a Flowing Sea. The best liked poems in general were: The Leak in the Dike, Little Orphant Annie, The Raggedy Man, Somebody's Mother. The Run-aways reached its peak in the 4th grade, the Village Blacksmith in the 6th, the Charge of the Light Brigade and the Skeleton in Armor in the 7th.

221. HUESTIS, R. R. & OTTO, T. P., The Grades of Related Students. *Journal of Heredity*, 1927, 18, 225-226.

Correlation between grade points earned by 38 pairs of sisters in the University of Oregon was .61; between 26 pairs of brothers, .74; between 36 pairs of brothers and sisters, .04.

222. HULL, CLARK L., The Conversion of Test Scores into Series which Shall Have any Assigned Means and Degree of Dispersion. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1927, 6, 298-300.

A technique for altering a series of scores in such a way as to keep relationships constant within the series and to make them comparable in average and in spread to some fixed standard.

223. HULL, CLARK L., Variability in Amount of Different Traits Possessed by the Individual. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1927, 18, 97.

35 test scores of each of 107 first-year high school students, ten of the scores coming from the Downey test, were translated into comparable T-scores. The results show that the individual varies from his best to his poorest ability 80% to 90% as much as this first-year high school group varied from best to poorest individual on the tests. Distributions within the group are approximately normal.

224. HUMKE, HOMER L., What Teachers Think. *School & Society*, July 30, 1927, 144.

Questionnaires answered by 390 teachers in seven Indiana counties show 249 favoring obedience to all laws, even bad ones; 274 believing excess change should be returned; 132 advocating that parents be obeyed in everything. Religion was not generally deemed essential to well-rounded education. Intoxicants and tobacco were disapproved.

225. HURLOCK, ELIZABETH B., A Study of Self-ratings by Children. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1927, 11, 490-502.

423 7th and 8th grade children, average I. Q. 107, chose the more desirable in each of 30 pairs of adjectives, 94% of the time. The most frequent admissions of an undesirable trait were "proud," "daring," and "bad tempered." Boys were somewhat more willing than girls to admit undesirable traits.

226. HURLOCK, ELIZABETH B., The Use of Group Rivalry as an Incentive. *Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology*, 1927, 22, 278-290.

77 children from grades IV and VI were tested in addition on five consecutive days; these were compared with a similar group which had been divided into two parts and encouraged to compete with each other. The average score made by the rivalry groups exceeded that of the control group on every day of the experiment, showing a gain at the end of the period of 41% over and above practice effect as measured by the control group. Increase in speed was greater than increase in accuracy.

227. ISHII, S., Weather and Emotional Crimes. *Japanese Journal of Psychology*, 1927, 2, No. 4, 654-676.

According to the Japanese Yearbook of Criminal Statistics, over a period 1913 to 1924, murders and bodily injuries reached a maximum in August; crimes against property increased in the winter. Murders were most apt to be perpetrated at above 25 degrees C., with a humidity between 50% and 80%. Bodily injuries on rainy days were slightly less than upon days without rain. Wind velocity above 8 meters per second was associated with increase in crime.

228. JENKINS, J. G. & DALLENBACH, K. M., The Effect of Serial Position upon Recall. *American Journal of Psychology*, 1927, 38, 285-291.

A tendency to recall the first nonsense syllable first.

229. JERREL, LOUISE, A Club Experiment in the Amos Hiatt Junior High School, Des Moines, Iowa. *Elementary School Journal*, March 1927, 511.

An experiment in club activities carried on during school time. Each teacher chose a club to sponsor. A brief description of each club to be organized was placed in the hands of the pupils, and they indicated their choice. Roll was taken in all clubs and attendance required. Clubs met once a week, the last school period of the day. At the beginning of the second semester pupils were allowed to make a new choice of clubs. Two questionnaires, one for teachers as club sponsors and one for

club members, were prepared near the close of the school year. The clubs most desired by the pupils were the musical organizations, girl scouts, dramatics, camp cookery, forestry, "Ask Me Guide," home economics, boy scouts, and commercial advertising. In answer to the questionnaire pupils stated in large majority that they had made new friends (821 Yes answers to 51 No answers), have enjoyed the clubs more than the classes (766 Yes, 82 No), have had good times (816 Yes, 45 No), have learned things that help them in their school work (655 Yes, 201 No), and have learned to work better with other pupils (749 Yes, 49 No). Of the 35 teachers, 21 stated that the success of the clubs justified the use of an hour a week of school time, and expressed appreciation of the benefits the pupils had received, such as the development of initiative, responsibility, leadership, the spirit of co-operation, etc.

230. JOHNSON, E. H., School Maladjustment and Behavior. *Mental Hygiene*, July 1927, 558.

61% of children who were problems in behavior were also two or more years retarded, whereas the school as a whole was only 10% so greatly retarded. In the case of children who did behave, correlation between intelligence and marks was .84; in the misbehavior group correlation was -.19. Physical handicaps were found in only 22% of the behavior cases, while 50% of those retarded but well-behaved had physical defects. Further comparison of children who misbehave with those who are merely retarded indicates that in the former cases it is more likely that the father is dead or is an irregular worker, and that the child comes from a poor neighborhood. Several case histories are given.

231. JONES, E. S., Testing and Training the Inferior or Doubtful Freshman. *Personnel Journal*, 1927, 6, 182-191.

A group of 32 prospective freshmen coming out of the bottom 40% of their high school classes were given special training for 3½ weeks before college opened. As a result they got along as well as did the average student, improving particularly in ability to make good scores on tests.

232. JONES, LORENZO & RUCH, G. M., Achievement as Affected by Amount of Time Spent in Study. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Society for the Study of Education*, 1927, II.

Among 300 college students the average intellectual ability indicated by four tests showed a correlation of .69 with grade points earned, whereas hours spent in study showed a correlation of -.41, indicating that the students who studied least made the best marks. When

mental ability was constant, study time appeared unrelated to school marks.

233. KAHLE, H. K., Capillarformen bei Schwachsinnigen und ihre Beziehungen zur geistigen Entwicklung (Capillary forms in the feebleminded and their relation to mental development). *Archives fur Psychiatry*, 1927, 81, 629-640.

A study of 253 idiots and imbeciles showed 30% with normal capillaries, 53% of terminal form (a final development coarse and greatly simplified); 17% with archicapillaries.

234. KAUF, GISELLA, Relation of School Grades to Social Activity and Environment. *Master's Essay*, Columbia University, 1927.

A questionnaire on activities given to 300 high school boys and 300 high school girls gave such results as: (median age of girls 16.6, of boys 15.7) boys were 10 lbs. heavier, 3 inches taller; girls list more minor ailments; 20% of girls belong to three or more clubs, only 11% of boys belong to as many; 46% of girls go to parties twice a week or oftener compared with 25% of boys; 24% of girls go to movies oftener than once a week, 30% of boys do so. Nearly half of the boys report no outside duties, but only 25% of the girls are free from them. Parents of girls attending high school are somewhat better educated than the parents of boys; proportion having high school training for girls, 26% of fathers, 20% of mothers; for boys, 9% of fathers, 8% of mothers. This suggests a very important selection factor. Comparing pupils obtaining high grades with pupils obtaining low grades, the high-grade pupils average two years younger, 20 lbs. lighter for boys and 10 lbs. for girls, 2 inches shorter for boys with no difference for girls. Pupils with poorer grades report more frequent illness, more frequent social contacts except for club membership, in which the bright pupils excel. Moving pictures are attended with about equal frequency by high grade and low grade students. Outside duties of over 20 hours are reported by 20% of the boys and 7% of the girls of the low grade group, and by only 6% of the boys and 3% of the girls of the high grade group. Physiological abnormalities are found in 22% of the low grade group as against 10% of the high grade group.

235. KINDER, ELAINE F. & RUTHERFORD, ELIZABETH J., Social Adjustment of Retarded Children. *Mental Hygiene*, October 1927, 811.

68 retarded children, 50% with I. Q. between 76 and 90, came to a psychiatric dispensary largely from very poor homes. Of 20 children given superior home placements, 14 were making satisfactory adjustment.

236. KITSON, H. D., Vocational Histories of Psychologists. *Personnel Journal*, 1927, 6, 276-280.

Men who are members of the American Psychological Association are about 46 years old. 83% of them are in academic life, having received an A.B. degree at 24 and a full professorship at 37. Those who obtained the doctor's degree before marriage obtained it at 28, and married at 33. Those who married first were married at 28 and obtained their degree at 33. Those who obtained the degree before marriage became professors three years before the group who chose marriage before the degree.

237. KLEIN, MELANIE, Criminal Tendencies in Normal Children. *British Journal of Medical Psychology*, 1927, 7, Part 2, 177.

Psychoanalytic studies of children 3 to 6 show cases presumably illustrating: a child's fear of a beast, due to a desire to kill his father; a girl's love for her mother due to a desire to destroy the beauty of the mother; a child's timidity due to repressed cruel phantasies; and a child's delinquencies due to attacks from an older sister.

238. KNIGHT, F. B., The Superiority of Distributed Practice in Drill in Arithmetic. *Journal of Educational Research*, 1927, 15, 157-165.

600 fifth-grade children given 50 periods of drill showed that the group given carefully distributed practice over all combinations gained 31% to 85%, whereas those given haphazard drill gained 13% to 61%.

239. KORNHAUSER, A. W., A Comparison of Raters. *Journal of Personnel Research*, 1927, 5, 338-344.

A study of the use of a seven-trait rating scale on college students. Correlations between raters about .40; same rater at different times, .60.

240. KORNHAUSER, A. W., A Comparison of Ratings on Different Traits. *Journal of Personnel Research*, 1927, 5, 440-446.

A study of ratings given to two groups of college students showed intelligence and industry most reliably rated, while initiative, cooperativeness, and leadership ability revealed a poor spread and considerable disagreement. The intercorrelations of the seven traits rated ranged from .45 to .84.

241. KORNHAUSER, A. W., Results from a Quantitative Questionnaire on Likes and Dislikes used with a Group of College Freshmen. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, April 1927, 85.

A study of 110 freshmen to see whether responses indicating how well they liked each of 164 items would differentiate those with the

highest marks from those in the middle or lowest quarter. Correlation between questionnaire score and first year marks for the group on which the differentiation is worked out, was .73. When applied to 63 additional students, the correlation fell to .17. Of the 30 items which seemed best in the first sample only 8 gave even fairly good results in the second sample. There is some tendency ($r = .22$) for the students with highest scholarships to be most moderate and least likely to mark the extremes of liking and disliking.

242. KROH, O., Weitere Beiträge zur Psychologie des Haushuhns (Further contributions to the psychology of the hen). *Zsch. f. Psychologie*, 1927, 103, 203-227.

Hens trained to select the larger of two grains of corn preserved this pattern indoors or out of doors, on grounds of different size or on the floor. When three grains were given the two larger ones were eaten. If pieces of meat or bread replaced the grains no transfer appeared. Hens trained to distinguish equilateral triangles from squares or circles reacted properly to other forms of triangle, right triangle, scalene triangle, etc. in new situations.

243. KUNDE, M. M. & CARLSON, A. J., Experimental Cretinism. I. A Rachitic-like Disturbance in Extreme Hypothyroidism. *American Journal of Physiology*, 1927, 82, 630-638.

Thyroidectomized rabbits showed a rachitic-like development, not due to diet and not present in controls.

244. KUNKEL, B. W., Undergraduate Activities of Leading Alumni. *School & Society*, February 26, 1927, 259.

89 men were chosen by more than two of their classmates of Lafayette College as the most successful in their classes, the years covering 1876-1906. These included 6% of all alumni, 9% of all football players, 7% of all baseball players, 13% of all Phi Beta Kappa members, 24% were teachers, 22% business men, 16% engineers, 15% lawyers, 10% ministers. The fifths of the class in scholarship furnished respectively 32% (highest fifth), 21%, 15%, 9% and 21% of these successes. Successes in the low group were business men. 85 men listed in Who's Who included only 30 of the 86 chosen by classmates. In the Who's Who list came 7% of the football players, 8% of the baseball players, and 14% of the Phi Beta Kappas. Respective fifths of the class in scholarship furnished 37%, 30%, 12%, 9% and 12% of the Who's Who group.

245. LAMPL, H., Contributions to Case History: A Case of Borrowed Sense of Guilt. *International Journal of Psychoanalysis*, 1927, 8, 143-158.

A patient whose father brought a pupil into the home as his mistress, indulged in a long series of sexual affairs and perhaps unconsciously tried to punish himself by becoming poor and adopting a moral and suffering attitude toward life. Analysis removed symptoms.

246. LANDIS, C., National Differences in Conversation. *Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology*, 1927, 21, 354-357.

Conversation overheard on the streets of London, New York, and Columbus, Ohio, showed men talking most about money and business, amusement and sports; women talking most about other women and clothing.

247. LANIER, L. H., Prediction of the Reliability of Mental Tests and Tests of Special Abilities. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 1927, 10, 69-113.

Careful study of the relationship between the split-halves method and the repetition method for 12 tests. The study casts doubt on the importance of length of tests as a factor in determining reliability. Six of the 12 tests showed a reliability as great for half the test as the reliability for the total test. Reliability for 100 subjects on 7 of the tests was somewhat less than the reliability for 20.

248. LANGE, M. W. & LUCKINA, A. M., Nervous System, Aschner's Symptom and Behavior of Children: Essay toward a reflexological study of bisocial groups of children. *Reflexological & Neuropsychological News*, 1926, 2, 256-281.

An investigation of boys between the ages of 9 and 15 to see whether the retardation of heartbeat due to pressure on the eyeball (Aschner's principle) was related to personality disorders. Those who were normal in behavior showed a strong Aschner symptom. Conduct problems usually indicated a decrease in the eye-heart reflex.

249. LASSWELL, H. D., Propaganda Technique in the World War. *Knopf*, 1927.

The author describes the way in which propaganda is used in war to mobilize hatred against the enemy, representing the opposing nation as a menacing and murderous aggressor, an obstacle to cherished ideals and dreams of the nation as a whole and of each constituent unit, violating all moral standards of the group and insulting their self-esteem. There is a possibility that there are physical and psychological types which respond more readily than others to propaganda. Industrialized populations are probably more tense and apprehensive than are rural populations.

250. LAWS, G., Parent-Child Relationships. *Teachers' College Contributions to Education*, 1927, No. 283.

285 mothers were asked to rate themselves on attitudes and practice relative to their children. Each was asked to secure ratings also from three others knowing her. Correlation of self-rating with average rating of others on the fifty usable sets of ratings was .31.

251. LEHMAN, HARVEY C., Measuring the Results of Gymnasium Instruction. *American Physical Education Review*, February 1927, 108.

Gym work was more popular in one town than in several others, judged by the answers to the Lehman Play Quiz.

252. LEHMAN, H. C. & WITTY, P. A., The Psychology of Play Activities. *New York: Barnes*, 1927, pp. xviii + 242.

A questionnaire covering 200 activities was submitted to more than 6,000 pupils at several different times of the year. There was considerable permanence of play interest from age to age, with very gradual transition. No age or group of ages between 8 and 22 seemed to be unusually social or individualistic in the type of play. In general it was found that play activities of the 8-10 year old group were more apt to include rhythmic bodily movements, hiding and finding, imitation of adults, tag games, singing and running games. Older individuals showed fewer seasonal activities; younger boys and girls engaged in a larger number of activities. Sex differences, as might be expected, showed girls more likely to skip or jump rope, play drop the handkerchief, play school or house, play with dolls, play jacks, sew, gather flowers, sing, and write letters. Boys were more apt to coast on wagons, row on auto tires, play cowboy, play soldier, play robber and police, spin tops, play marbles, play mumblety-peg, carry on athletic events, whistle, watch athletic sports. Reading was more favored by girls. Reading books consumed more time than any other activity for girls, and at some ages for boys. The greatest difference between the sexes appeared between ages 8-10. Rural boys 8-10 were found to engage in fewer activities than city boys of the same age, whereas at ages over 10 rural boys engaged in the larger number of play activities. Rural children were less mature in their play interests; whistling and singing were much more common in rural life. Negro children were much more apt than white children to play games in which other children were involved. Negro children more often went to church and Sunday school. The results are difficult to interpret along racial lines, however, because bright children were more inclined to individual activities and dull children to social activities; bright children were much less likely to enjoy going to church and Sunday school. Negro children enjoy playing school

more than white children, which may be a compensatory activity. Negro children write poems much more than white ones. White children, presumably because of greater opportunity, participated more in auto rides, radio adjustment, basket ball, and watching athletic sports. Negro children did more boxing than white. In contrast to earlier studies, this investigation shows that at no age were more than 15% of the boys making collections of any kind. There was, moreover, no age level of sudden increase or decrease in collecting. Some activities depend upon neighborhood whims, appearing and disappearing suddenly in certain social groups. Seasonal changes on the whole made less variation than we might expect. Relatively few activities varied much from season to season. Spring was most likely to have activities which did not appear in other seasons. Greater seasonal variation was found in the play of boys than of girls. Gifted children did not differ significantly in number of play activities, but did more reading, especially of funny papers, comic strips, and jokes, and did less gum-chewing, racing, jumping, boxing, etc. Special comment upon some of these findings, the nature of which is indicated by the title of the article, is given in the supplementary references listed below:

- LEHMAN, H. C., A Study of Doll Play in Relation to the Onset of Pubescence. *Pedagogical Seminary*, 1927, 34, 72-76.
- LEHMAN, H. C. & ANDERSON, T. H., Social Participation vs. Solitariness in Play. *Pedagogical Seminary*, 1927, 34, 279-289.
- LEHMAN, H. C. & WITTY, P. A., Newspaper vs. Teacher: data on children's newspaper reading. *Educational Review*, February 1927, 97.
- IBID., Periodicity of Play Behavior. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, February 1927, 18, 115.
- IBID., Play Activity and School Progress. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1927, 18, 318-326.
- LEHMAN, H. C. & MICHIE, O. C., Extreme Versatility vs. Paucity of Play Interest. *Pedagogical Seminary*, 1927, 34, 290-298.
- LEHMAN, H. C. & WITTY, P. A., The Present Status of the Tendency to Collect and Hoard. *Psychological Review*, 1927, 34, 48-56.
- IBID., The Play Behavior of Fifty Gifted Children. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1927, 18, 259-265.
- IBID., Periodicity and Growth. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1927, 11, 106-116.
- IBID., The Compensatory Function of the Movies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1927, 11, 33-41.
- IBID., The Compensatory Function of the Sunday "Funny" Paper. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1927, 11, 202-211.
- IBID., Drive: A Neglected Trait in the Study of the Gifted Child. *Psychological Review*, 1927, 34, 364-376.
- IBID., Church and Sunday School Attendance of Negro Children. *Religious Education*, 1927, 22, 50-56.
253. LELAND, B., Wilbur. *Journal of Educational Research*, 1927, 16, 132-135.
- Wilbur had difficulty in reading, was unstable and erratic. His attention was easily distracted. The basic difficulty proved to be that he was very far-sighted. Correction, taking about four months, resulted in excellent progress.
254. LEMON, A. C., An Experimental Study of Guidance and Placement of Freshmen in the Lowest Decile of the Iowa Qualifying Examination, 1925. *University of Iowa Studies: Studies in Education*, 1927, 3, No. 8, pp. 135.
- Among students standing in the lowest tenth of the freshmen entering the University of Iowa, only 12% graduated, 57% being eliminated by the end of the first year, and 72% by the end of the second year. The introduction of a course designed to develop efficient study habits, reading techniques, and general mental health, resulted in an average grade for the trained group significantly higher than that of the control group.
255. LENTZ, T., JR., Relation of I. Q. to Size of Family. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1927, 18, 486-496.
- Correlation between I. Q. and number of children in the family varied in different communities from —.10 to —.41.
256. LEONARD, W. E., The Locomotive God. *New York: Century*, 1927, pp. 434, \$4.00.
- A college professor describes in popular form his attempt to cure himself of fear patterns which he believes originated with an experience with a train. No treatments have been successful.
257. LEWIN, BERTRAM D., A Study of the Endocrine Organs in Psychoses. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, November, 1927, 301.
- Post mortem examinations of hypophysis, thyroid, adrenal, and sex glands (cases varying from 43 to 112), without previous knowledge of clinical diagnosis, showed no correlation between the psychoses and the anatomical characteristics.
258. LEWIN, K., Untersuchungen zur Handlungs- und Affektpsychologie III. Zeigarnik, B. Das Behalten erledigter und unerledigter Handlungen (Investigations

on the psychology of action and affection. III. The memory of completed and uncompleted actions). *Psychologie Forsch.*, 1927, 9, 1-85.

Adults, and especially children, tend to recall better a task which they have been interrupted in performing. Those fully completed were forgotten.

259. LICHTENBERGER, M., L'Etat Actuel du Problème de l'Hypnotisme (The present status of the problem of hypnotism. *Prophyl. Ment.*, 1927, 3, 355-365.

A general review of the literature on this question from 1895 to 1924.

260. LINCOLN, E. A., Sex Differences in the Growth of American School Children. *Warwick & York*, 1927, pp. 189.

Summary of previous investigations, showing no significant sex differences in general intelligence, although there are some more boys in the higher ranges of group tests. There are higher school achievements for girls. The greatest difference is in the greater rate of physical growth for girls. There is a consistent tendency for girls to develop at a faster rate than boys, but this does not seem to affect intelligence.

261. LINCOLN, E. A., The Reliability of the Stanford-Binet Scale and the Constancy of Intelligence Quotients. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1927, 18, 621-626.

Double testing on the same day of 30 six and seven-year-old children gave a median I. Q. change of 3 points, and a correlation between the two tests of .95.

262. LODGE, O., DOYLE, A. C., AND OTHERS, The Case For and Against Psychical Belief. *Clark University*, 1927, pp. 365, \$3.75.

Lectures by fourteen authors summarizing the history, techniques, and results of psychical research. Only two of them are antagonistic to claims that any such phenomena occur.

263. LOEWE, S., Zur Frage autotoxischer, einer gestörter Keimdrüseninkretion entstammender Teilbedingungen psychiatrischer Erkrankungen (On the problem of disturbed sex gland secretion as a partial autotoxic condition of mental disease). *Monatsch. f. Psychiat. und Neur.*, 1927, 53, 152-165.

A study of the hormone secretion in the blood of ten female dementia praecox patients suggests a hypofunction of the sex glands.

264. LOMMEN, GEORGINA, Educating for Desirable Attitudes in Conduct. *Journal of Educational Method*, March 1927, 291.

A cooperative experiment of 16 staff members and 140 student teachers including inven-

tory of traits possessed and needed, reading to enhance character qualities, morality plays, and case studies. Subjective appraisals are favorable.

265. LORAND, A. S., A Horse Phobia: A Character Analysis of an Anxiety Hysteria. *Psychoanalytic Review*, 1927, 14, 172-188.

An interpretation of fears that "something will happen to the horse" in terms of the traditional psychoanalytic concepts.

266. LOWE, CHARLOTTE, The Intelligence and Social Background of the Unmarried Mother. *Mental Hygiene*, 1927, 11, 783.

344 girls in Minnesota hospitals keeping mothers for a three-month nursing period showed average age 20, 24% with I. Q. under 75 (4.6 times the frequency for school population). Percent of borderline cases (I. Q. 75 to 84) was twice that of general population; percent of dull, average, and bright below general level, but percent of superior 1.3 times the frequency in general population. Going to public dances was most common amusement, outdoor sports least common. 23% came from homes broken before girl was 18. 59% were country girls, compared with a census expectation of 50%. Average size of family was 6.2, for state as a whole, 3.5. More than half became pregnant before leaving home.

267. LUNDBERG, G. A., The Demographic and Economic Basis of Political Radicalism and Conservatism. *American Journal of Sociology*, 1927, 32, 719-732.

Judged by their political vote, the counties of North Dakota and Minnesota which are most radical are the least prosperous ones.

268. LUXENBURGER, H., Tuberkulose als Todesursache in den Geschwisterschaften Schizophrener, Manisch-Depressiver und der Durchschnittsbevölkerung (Tuberculosis as a cause of death in the brothers and sisters of schizophrenics, manic-depressives and in the average population). *Zsch. f. d. ges. Neur. und Psychiat.*, 1927, 109, No. 1, 2, 313.

A study of 915 families showed that the mentally normal brothers and sisters of dementia praecox patients died of tuberculosis much more frequently than did relatives of manic-depressives, who approximate the norm for the population.

269. MACE, C. A., Factors Determining "Natural" Rates of Mental and Physical work. *Report of British Ass'n. for the Advancement of Science*, 1927, 375.

Some people work at more nearly their maximum rate than do others. The greater efficiency sometimes observed with subjectively

preferred rates of work is a transient phenomenon changing with practice.

270. MACKAYE, DAVID L., Fixation of Vocational Interest. *American Journal of Sociology*, 1927, 33, 353-370.

Discussion (without data) based on study of 400 children suggests that fixation of vocational interest results from a struggle of the personality in and with its environment. Unfixed interest up through college is regarded as characteristic of higher types of intelligence.

271. MACQUARRIE, T. W., A Mechanical Ability Test. *Journal of Personnel Research*, 1927, 5, 329-337.

A pencil and paper test having a reliability of over .90 which correlates less than .20 with a group mental test, showing relatively low correlation with teacher ratings on mechanical ability.

272. MADDOCKS, CARL W., The Factor of Intelligence in School Failures. *School Review*, October 1927, 602-611.

A study of 100 pupils failing in some subject in grades 7 to 11 reveals the usual correlation between intelligence and success. Teachers are inclined to attribute failure primarily to (1) low mentality; (2) laziness; (3) faulty preparation; (4) irregular school attendance.

273. MADSDEN, I. N., The Prediction of Teaching Success. *Educational Administration & Supervision*, January 1927, 39.

A study of 31 teachers who made such a complete failure that their resignation was obtained before the end of the year, showed them to be far below the average in intelligence tests and subject matter tests. Superintendents gave as reasons for failure poor knowledge of subject matter (14), lack of instructional skill (13), poor discipline (12). Correlation between grades in normal school and amount of time spent in preparing assignments for 67 student teachers ranged from —.37 to —.45.

274. MAHAN, THOMAS J., An Analysis of the Characteristics of Citizenship. *Teachers' College Contributions to Education*, 1928, No. 315, 43 p.

In naming the duties of a good citizen, 280 adult citizens differed from 360 high school pupils by mentioning more frequently (1) render civic service, 64% to 25%; (2) be well informed, 34% to 0%; (3) respect rights of others, 22% to 3%; (4) join civic organizations, 18% to 0%; (5) respect property rights, 15% to 0%; (6) support churches, 15% to 0%. In naming difficulties adults were more apt to mention (1) lack of reliable information, 25% to 0%; (2) knowing real merits of candidates, 20% to 0%; (3) indif-

ference, 17% to 0%; (4) conflicts between business and public service, 18% to 0%. Students mentioned more often (1) voting, 22% to 0%; (2) understanding laws, 11% to 0%; (3) making an honest living, 8% to 0%. Among qualities adults stressed honesty, 75%, cooperation, 41%, unselfishness, 21%, industry, 20%. Students stressed patriotism, 30%, loyalty, 25%, education, 11%, obedience to law, 10%. Commonly used texts were found by the author's inadequate analysis to devote less than 6% of their space to such duties, difficulties, and qualities.

275. MALINOWSKI, B., Prenuptial Intercourse between the Sexes in the Trobriand Islands, N. W. Melanesia. *Psychoanalytic Review*, 1927, 14, 20-36.

Promiscuity prevails at all ages, and marriage means merely a less degree of alliance than usual.

276. MANOILOFF, E. O., Discernment of Human Races by Blood, Particularly of Russians from Jews. *American Journal Phys. Anthropol.*, 1927, 10, 11-21.

Blood tests on 880 Jews and 120 Russian Gentiles gave correct results in about 92% of the cases.

277. MARGRAF, W., Der Wiederholungssatz in der Volksschule auf Grund von Schulbogen (The law of repetition as confirmed by school records). *Arch. f. d. ges. Psychologie*, 1927, 60, 257-316.

Examination of 249 children born the same day, attending the same public school for seven years, shows a tendency for pupils obtaining high marks in early years to continue this record. Pupils frequently absent in earlier years repeat this performance later.

278. MARIE, A. & MARIE, V., Psychose Gémellaire Homologue et Homochrone (Homologous and Homochronous Twin Psychosis). *Bull. Societe Méd. Ment.*, 1927, 20, 6-10.

Two twin sisters, not having seen each other for twenty years, both developed a delusion of persecution, one at the age of 69, the other at the age of 73.

279. MARSHALL, R. M., The Mental Aspects of Epidemic Encephalitis. *Journal of Mental Science*, 1927, 73, 589-595.

Epidemic encephalitis may develop symptoms of behavior disorder weeks after apparent recovery, or the same nervous disorders present during the disease may continue somewhat irregularly. With young children the disease often results in excitability, wakefulness at night with sleepiness in the day time, tics and other stereotyped muscle disorders, and disorders of respiratory rhythm. Older persons are more apt to develop paralysis, con-

fusion, melancholia, mania, or the Parkinsonian syndrome. Restless instability is usually prominent, with no deterioration in general intelligence.

280. MARTIN, HELEN CORBETT, How Students Spend their Time. *Pressey, Research Adventures in Univ. Teaching*, 1927, p. 88.

A report from about 100 students per day for a week in March showed a median student time of about one hour per lecture, with little study on Friday, Saturday, and Sunday.

281. MATHEWS, C. O., The Effect of Position of Printed Response Words upon Children's Answers to Questions in Two-response Types of Tests. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, October 1927, 445-457.

When there are two possible responses to a test question, other things being equal, the upper one tends to be marked 34% more often. When they are printed on the same line the answer was marked 3% more often when printed to the left of its alternative. There is a correlation of .88 between the difficulty of the item and the tendency for this position factor to occur.

282. MATTHEW, JANET A. & LUCKY, BERTHA M., Notes on Factors that may Alter the Intelligence Quotient in Successive Examinations. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Soc. Study of Education*, 1927, Part I, 411-419.

Examination of 38 children who showed I. Q. shift of 5 points or more indicated language difficulties in 14 cases, medical problems in 9, emotional problems in 6, behavior problems in 5. In 7 cases no basis for change could be discovered.

283. MATTHEW, M. TAYLOR, A Written Reproduction Test for the Lord's Prayer. *School & Society*, August 20, 1927, 240.

Among 400 pupils of junior high school age, accustomed to daily repetition of the Lord's prayer, 22½% were able to write it perfectly.

284. MAY, C. L., Survey of Criminal Statistics. *Journal of Delinquency*, 1927, 11, 279-293.

Comparison of 1,000 cases in the Los Angeles County Criminal Courts 1914-17 with 1,000 cases 1921-25. Most frequent offence burglary; check cases second. In the 1914-17 group 45% were between 18 and 25; in the current group 55% fell within these years. 59% have attended grammar school grades only; 15% had had no schooling; 21% finished high school; 6% had attended college. College men were usually involved in frauds or were victims of mental disease. Only 8 of the 2,000 were men with professional training.

78% were American born, 12% were born in California. 36% were married, 66% of those investigated came from broken homes; a condition which usually existed before the subject reached the age of 21. 28% had prior records. Only 11% were members of any social organization. 26% were handicapped physically. 52% had past U. S. service records. 59% of the men were Protestant, 35% Catholic.

285. MAY, MARK, & HARTSHORNE, HUGH, Sibling Resemblance in Deception. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Soc. Study of Education*, 1927, II.

Brothers and sisters resemble each other in tendency to cheat. This is true even after due allowance is made for similarity in intelligence and in cases in which all the children are living in the common environment provided by an orphan asylum.

286. McCABE, FRANCIS T., A Study of the Effect of Working upon a Pupil's School Success. *Vocational Guidance Magazine*, November 1927, 57-64.

Questionnaires about out-of-school work were answered by 758 Massachusetts technical school boys; 361 were workers, 397 non-workers. The average amount of work was about 4 hours a day, usually delivering papers, serving as clerks, errand boys, janitors' assistants, mowing lawns, etc. Median I. Q. of group tests of workers was 103, of non-workers 106; median school mark for workers, 63; for non-workers, 64. Number of failure marks per pupil for non-workers was 1.39, for workers 1.36. Number of honor marks per pupil for workers .84, for non-workers 1.06. In general, those obliged to work succeeded rather better than those working for extra money, but all differences were slight.

287. McCALL, WILLIAM A., Comparison of the Educational Progress of Bright Pupils in Accelerated and in Regular Classes. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Soc. Study of Education*, 1927, II.

At the end of two years segregation tests of reading, arithmetic fundamentals, and spelling showed that 67 segregated bright children in New York public schools gained an excess of about seven months educational age over 67 equally bright children who studied with normal classes. The difference is not statistically significant.

288. McCLATCHY, VIVIENNE R., A Theoretical and Statistical Study of the Personality Trait "Originality" as herein Defined. Paper read before the Southern Society for Philosophy & Psychology. *Abstracted in Psychological Bulletin*, 1927, 24, 517.

Tests given to twenty persons showed no significant correlation among such "originality" tests as the chain puzzle, analogies, the Kent-Rosanoff list, and rankings by judges.

289. McDougall, W., An Experiment for the Testing of the Hypothesis of Lamarck. *British Journal of Psychology (Gen. Section)*, 1927, 17, 267-304.

Successive generations of rats trained to choose a dim rather than a bright light and to swim a certain maze, showed each new generation learning more rapidly than did its predecessors of the same stock.

290. McGEOCH, J. A., The Acquisition of Skill. *Psychological Bulletin*, 1927, 24, 437.

153 studies, made since January 1917, are reviewed.

291. McGEOGH, JOHN A. & WHITELEY, PAUL L., Reliability of the Pressey X-O Tests for Investigating the Emotions. *Pedagogical Seminary*, June 1927, 255.

Pressey Tests were given to sophomores and repeated with some pupils after 48 hours, with others after 45 days, with others after 90 days. For the affectivity scores the reliability was between .82 and .87 for the 48-hour interval; for the idiosyncrasy scores the reliability ranged from .43 to .77. Reliability on the classification schemes ranged from .74 to .90. All reliabilities, with the possible exception of idiosyncrasy on Test 4, decrease with time.

292. MEAD, CYRUS D., Visual vs. Teaching Methods. *Educational Administration & Supervision*, November 1927, 505-518.

108 pupils from 3rd to 6th grade were given a lesson consisting of a movie film, a lesson based entirely upon a text, and a combination lesson. The combination was best five times out of seven; the film alone was better than the simple teaching four times out of seven, and worse three times out of seven.

293. MENDES-CORREA, A. A., Sur les Préten- dues "Races" Sérologiques (On the supposed serological "races"). *L'Anthrop.*, 1927, 36, 437-445.

Criticism of the attempt to make a distinction between races on the basis of the blood serum and agglutinary properties of the blood. Representatives of all four types are found in all populations which have been studied. Some groups anthropologically similar yield different serological proportions. The laboratory technique is criticized as being unreliable.

294. MENNINGER, —, Adaptation Difficulties in College Students (Women and Men). *Mental Hygiene*, 1927, 11, 519.

Case description of seven types of difficulty and comparison of emotionally healthy and

emotionally unhealthy groups, showing the following differences:

	Emotionally healthy group	Emotionally unhealthy group
Poor health in childhood	11%	64%
Having had many love affairs	76%	23%
Having been praised as children	64%	18%
Having many sex dreams	37%	0%

Other factors of difference were indicative that the unhealthy group were more apt to have been inferior in the school room, to have had relatives with nervous breakdowns, nervous parents, excessive day-dreaming, and quarrels with brothers and sisters.

295. MEREDITH, G. P., Consciousness of Method as a Means of Transfer of Training. *Forum of Education*, 1927, 5, 37-45.

A group which discussed the essentials of a good definition surpassed in ability to define ordinary words equated groups given either no training, or practice in producing definitions in electricity and magnetism.

296. MESSERSCHMIDT, R., A Quantitative Investigation of the Alleged Independent Operation of Conscious and Subconscious Processes. *Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology*, 1927, 22, 325-340.

In hypnosis simple addition tasks were suggested to three subjects, the addition to be carried on unconsciously after the trance. Amnesia was complete. There was great interference with the conscious processes. Conscious reading was only 57% as efficient when accompanied by unconscious addition, as when done singly. The addition was only 27% efficient. Conscious addition with simultaneous unconscious addition yielded efficiencies, respectively, of 38% and 14%.

297. MILLER, G. F., An Experimental Test of Intellectual Honesty. *School & Society*, 1927, 26, 852-854.

In a class of 48 individuals the difference between those who reported error in score when it was too low, and those who reported error in score when it was too high, indicated that only 8% of those who may be assumed to have noticed the difference, reported it when it was in their favor.

298. MOHR, G. J. & GUNDLACH, R. H., The Relation between Physique and Performance. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 1927, 10, 117-157.

600 prison subjects were examined to discover Kretschmer's physical types. The percentage of types in this population did not differ from the normal. About 45 pyknic men were compared with 45 asthenic-athletic men,

all native whites. On a series of tests the asthenic group excelled, the most important difference being on the Army Alpha test and on an information test. The oft-noted tendency for asthenics to be more schizoid and pyknics more cycloid was noticed.

299. MONAHAN, J. E. & HOLLINGSWORTH, L. S., Neuro-Muscular Capacity of Children who Test above 135 I. Q. (Stanford-Binet). *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1927, 18, 88-96.

Forty-two children with I. Q. over 135 showed physical performance equal or superior to average children, except in chinning.

300. MONROE, WALTER S. & ASHER, OLLIE, A Bibliography of Bibliographies. University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. XXIV, No. 36, Urbana, Illinois. *University of Ill.*, 1927, pp. 60.

How to find where to find where the material is.

301. MONTGOMERY, RUTH P., The Correlation of the Porteus Maze Test and the Healy Pictorial Completion Test II with Social Conduct. *Masters Thesis, Columbia University*, 1927.

The comparison of 81 well-adjusted feeble-minded patients in an institution (law-abiding, self-controlled, diligent, and obedient) with 72 disorderly feeble-minded patients. Stanford Binet mental age for disorderly group, 8 years 9 months; for the well-adjusted group, 8 years 5 months. I. Q. for both groups was 63. Porteus scores tend to be lower for the maladjusted group. Healy II is likewise lower for the maladjusted.

302. MOORE, CLYDE B., Junior High School Citizens. *Elementary School Journal*, September 1927, 30-38.

350 pupils in a junior high school were asked to name the best all-round citizen in the schoolroom, and give reasons for it. The most frequent type of reason mentioned good behavior, quiet in halls, obedient, orderly, careful of property, works quietly. Second stood courteous, clean, helps new pupils, kind, neat, not vulgar. The third group included studious, industrious, attends to own affairs, punctual, gets home work, on honor roll, gets good marks. The great preference is for statements with reference to the school; very few mention life outside the school or in the home. The repressive virtues are rated very much higher than the creative ones.

303. MORGENSTERN, —, Un Cas de Mutisme chez un Enfant Myopathique, Ancien Convulsif; Guérison du Mutisme par Psycho-analyse (A case of mutism in a myopathic child, a former convulsive; cure of the mutism through psychoanalysis). *Enceph.*, 1927, 22, 478-481.

A child of 9, mute from psychic causes, showed by drawings his sexual preoccupations.

304. MORRISON, R. H., Factors Causing Failure in Teaching. *Journal of Educational Research*, 1927, 16, 98-105.

40 interviews with superintendents concerning causes of teaching failure showed most frequent causes to be poor discipline (17); inability to cooperate (14), gossip (11), sexual indiscretion (11), lack of teaching skill and poor knowledge of subject matter (10).

305. MORT, P. R. & STUART, M. H., Economy in Reporting and Recording Pupil Ratings. *Teachers College Record*, 1927, 29, 194-201.

A simple scheme, in which high school teachers rated pupils on (1) personal characteristics, (2) respect for property, (3) business ability, (4) school welfare, (5) community welfare, by reporting merely exceptional cases under each heading, no ordinary pupils being reported at all, was found to serve quite as well for pupil guidance and for the stimulation of a broader concept of school life as did an elaborate scheme of 38 sub-items under these five headings, with every pupil rated on every item.

306. MUHL, A. H., America's Greatest Suicide problem. *Psychoanalytic Review*, 1927, 14.

70% of 500 suicides in San Diego appeared to involve despondency and depression over chronic ill-health.

307. MUHL, A. H., Emotional Maladjustment during Pregnancy with Possible Relationship to Enuresis in the Child. *Psychoanalytic Review*, 1927, 14, 326-328.

36% of 250 mothers of pre-school children were emotional during pregnancy. 32% of the children were subject to enuresis; 60% of the mothers of these children were in the group emotionally disturbed during pregnancy.

308. MULLER, H. R., Blood Groups among the Yoruba Tribe of West African Negroes. *Proc. Soc. Exper. Biol. & Med.*, 1927, 24, 437-438.

A study of 325 individuals in a well-segregated African tribe of Negroes showed that all the four blood-groups were present.

309. MURDOCH, KATHERINE, MADDOW, DORIS & BERG, NETTIE L., A Study of the Relation between Intelligence and Acquisition of English. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Society for the Study of Education, Part I*, 343-353.

149 girls, all of whom came from homes in which Jewish was constantly spoken, all in Grade VII, and all but one having both parents foreign-born, were given tests of English ability and intelligence. Correlation of years

of residence in the U. S. with Otis Intelligence Test and with word knowledge is practically 0. The Otis test, although highly verbal, appeared to be as fair a measure of mental ability as the International Test, which does not involve a knowledge of English. It would seem to be true that amount of English spoken in the home is an index of intelligence, and not an error contributing to misinterpretation. With chronological age constant, correlation of English ability was: With Otis Test, .11; with International Test, .07; with Thorndike Word Knowledge Test, .09.

310. NASH, H. B. & PHILLIPS, M. J. W., A Study of the Relative Value of Three Methods of Teaching High School Chemistry. *Journal of Educational Research*, 1927, 15, 371-379.

Among three groups of 15 high school pupils each, a slight superiority on a uniform test was found for the group in which the instructor did all the talking and demonstrating, assigning all the text units but never calling on pupils. Gains were not statistically significant. The other groups were individual, pupil directed, or a combination. Some pupils of high ability made most gains under self-direction.

311. NEIFELD, M. R., A Study of Spurious Correlation. *Journal of American Statistical Association*, 1927, 22, 331.

Conditions under which correlation of ratios is valid, and conditions making it spurious.

312. NETSCHAJEN, A., Psychologische Untersuchungen an Kindern im Alter Von 4 bis 8 Jahren (Psychological Investigations with children 4 to 8 years of age). *Zsch. f. Angew. Psychologie*, 1927, 29, 375-392.

98 children from famine-stricken provinces were given ten tests of the Binet type; after three months they showed an increase: by overweight children amounting to 22%, by those of normal weight 33%, and by children of subnormal weight of 63%.

313. NEWCOMER, MABEL, Data on Intelligence and Use of Time of Phi Beta Kappa Students at Vassar. *School & Society*, January 1, 1927, 24.

35 Vassar students elected to Phi Beta Kappa spent about 15 minutes a day more on study than did the average college girl. The difference in time spent on extra-curricular activities is more significant, the larger time being spent on them by the Phi Beta Kappa group.

314. NEW YORK COMMISSION ON VENTILATION, Respiratory Illness and Air Conditions in the Syracuse Schools. *School & Society*, December 17, 1927, 785.

An investigation of several thousand pupils indicates that there is slightly less absence due to respiratory diseases in schoolrooms naturally ventilated, than in schoolrooms mechanically ventilated.

315. NORBURY, F. P., Seasonal Climatic Curves, their Relation to Neuro-psychiatry. *Welfare Magazine*, 1927, 18, 356-370.

The peaks for the curves of frequency of mental disorders occur in June and November.

316. O'BRIEN, F. P., The Conditional Value of a Longer School Year in One-Teacher Schools. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Society for the Study of Education*, 1927, 11.

A study of over a thousand pupils in one-teacher schools in Kansas. Tests of reading, arithmetic, spelling, composition, and handwriting showed that 8th grade pupils in 8-month schools, having had approximately a year more of schooling than 8th grade pupils in 7-month schools, were less than half a year ahead in educational achievement. Below the 7th grade the proportion of comparisons favoring the 7-month school was equal to that favoring the 8-month school. The median achievement of pupils who attended less than 80% of the time often equalled or surpassed the median achievement of those attending 90% or more of the time.

317. ODELL, C. W., An Attempt at Predicting Success in the Freshman Year at College. *School & Society*, 1927, 25, 702-706.

Multiple correlation between college freshman grades and such factors as Otis Intelligence Score, age, and high school marks, were all too low to give any positive method of prediction.

318. ODELL, C. W., Predicting the Scholastic Success of College Freshmen. *University of Illinois Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin*, 1927, No. 37, pp. 54, \$0.25.

A study of 2,000 college freshmen showed the usual correlation, .40 to .50, between high school and freshmen marks, with lower correlations between intelligence tests and college grades. The best multiple correlations were in the neighborhood of .60, which are interpreted as containing errors at least three-fourths as large as those of pure guesses. A tendency for the higher scores on intelligence tests and high school grades to predict more reliably than those at other points in the scale is reported.

319. OHLSON, DAVID, School Marks vs. Intelligence Rating. *Educational Administration & Supervision*, February 1927, 90-102.

Correlation between intelligence and marks for 500 students was .38, being somewhat higher for the girls than for the boys. Correlations with English marks were highest (.45) and with home economics lowest (.12).

320. ORATA, P., Race Prejudice. *Welfare Magazine*, 1927, 18, 766-775.

A test giving opportunity to indicate hostility or dislike for Chinese, Filipinos, Hindus, and Japanese was given to 58 students in Ohio State University. A test of information accompanied this prejudice test. Correlation of prejudice or hostility with intelligence, —.18; with information, —.10; with number of foreign students known, —.30; with age, —.33; with number of cultural courses taken, —.33; with number of cultural societies belonged to, —.35. Three subjects admitted no prejudice.

321. ORBISON, THOMAS, The Prevention of Crime in Mental Deviates. *Journal of Delinquency*, June 1927, 100.

The author reports three previous surveys showing about $\frac{1}{3}$ of the population of schools for delinquents in 1918 feeble-minded, with perhaps 70% dull or less adequate. In 1926 feeble-mindedness was only 2% at the Whittier State School (California), with those dull or worse making up less than 50% of the group. Superior intelligence was found in 6% in 1918, in 11% in 1926.

322. ORDAHL, G., Birth Rank of Mongolians. *Journal of Heredity*, 1927, 18, 429-431.

A study of family histories of 159 Mongolian idiots indicates an approximately normal heredity so far as intelligence is concerned.

323. OREL, H., Zur Klinik der Mongolischen Idiotie (A Clinical Study of Mongolian Idiocy). *Zsch. f. Kinderhke.*, 1927, 44.

No method of cure is apparent in any cases so far studied. Few individuals reach the age of puberty. Walking is learned one or two years later than normal, speech is very much retarded, but melodies are readily learned.

324. ORLEANS, J. S., Correlation without Plotting. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1927, 18, 310-317.

An exact method for computing the Pearson coefficient of correlation directly from the differences between squares and the S. D. s. It is particularly useful in intercorrelations, where each new intercorrelation requires only the sum of the differences between squares of the two series.

325. ORLEANS, J. S., Influence of Grade Progress on Achievement of Subnormal Pupils. *Teachers College Record*, May 1927, 916-927.

Comparison of 549 5th grade children with an equal number of 3rd grade children paired

for chronological age, mental age, and I. Q., indicated that the more advanced children had an educational age 1.6 years higher than the retarded children. Among 1,210 pairs there were practically no cases in which a child in a lower grade surpassed in educational age a child with the same mental age and I. Q. who was in a higher grade.

326. ORMSBEE, H. G., The Young Employed Girl. *New York: Women's Press*, 1927, pp. xiv + 124, \$1.00.

A study of 500 working girls. The homes of 263 were visited. 39% of these were struggling against some definite form of social maladjustment, usually due to the loss of the breadwinner through death, desertion, illness, etc. Attitude toward work for most of the girls was indifference, in contrast to a decided like or dislike for school. Fifty per cent of the homes of the girls who would like to continue in school are handicapped by loss of the breadwinner. Retarded girls are more apt to read trashy fiction and go to the movies.

327. PARTRIDGE, M. N., A Study of Nocturnal Enuresis in Boys. *Journal of Delinquency*, 1927, 11, 296-308.

Study revealed enuresis as a problem in about 10% of the boys at Vineland Training School (Average age 14.1, M. A. 4.8). Correlation of age and frequency .01; mental age and frequency —.55. Greatest frequency appeared on Wednesday, the night of the weekly entertainment. No clear connection was found with physical factors. Connection with generally unstable temperament or with specific adjustment problems seemed uncertain.

328. PASSEMARD, E., Quelques Observations sur des Chimpanzès (Some Observations on Chimpanzees). *Journal de Psychologie*, 1927, 24, 243-254.

Observations of five chimpanzees, who show manifestations of love and jealousy, with a tendency toward promiscuity on the part of the male.

329. PEARL, R., The Biology of Superiority. *American Mercury*, 1927, 12, 257-266.

63 philosophers given at least a page in the Encyclopedia Britannica included only three whose parents were sufficiently distinguished to obtain separate notice. Among the 18 of these who had children, only three had children given separate notice.

330. PECZENIK, O., Über den Einfluss der Nahrung auf Aktivität und Ruhe (On the influence of the diet on activity and rest). *Pflüg. Arch. f. d. Ges. Physiologie*, 1927, 217, 696-698.

Mice on a diet of fat did much less work than when on a diet rich in albumen.

331. PERELMAN, A. & FROLKOV, A., Significance of the Reaction of Buscaino in Psychiatry. *Obozrenie Psikiatrii, neurologii i refleksologii (Review of Psychiatry, Neurology and Reflexology)* 1926, No. 1-2, 24-35.

A chemical urine reaction, uncommon in healthy individuals, can be demonstrated in 50% of cases of schizophrenia.

332. PERRY, W. M., Measurement and Analysis of Student Achievement in a Beginning Course in Educational Psychology. *Education*, 1927, 48, 12-27.

Ten objective tests of psychological knowledge (samples given) yield a correlation among 500 students in the Teachers' College of the University of Nebraska of .42 with Alpha and .57 with Otis.

333. PICKERT, A., Investigations concerning the Psychic Pupillary Reflexes in the Mentally Diseased. *Zsch. f. d. ges. Neur. und Psychiat.*, 1927, 111, 728-749.

Investigation among 929 patients showed that the absence of pupillary reflexes to pain, fright, and mental work, while found relatively often in schizophrenics, cannot be considered a clearly diagnostic symptom.

334. PINTNER, R., Non-Language Tests in Foreign Countries. *School & Society*, 1927, 26, 374-376.

270 Belgian children made scores on the Pintner non-language test similar to norms for children in the United States. The only significant difference appeared at the age of 8, at which level only 26 subjects were tested.

335. PINTNER, R., The Survey of Schools for the Deaf: Psychological Survey. *American Ann. Deaf*, 1927, 72, 377-414.

A survey of more than 4,000 children in 41 schools for the deaf indicated that the deaf were retarded on non-language intelligence tests, but far more retarded in school subjects than the difference in intelligence would suggest.

336. PODKOPAYEV, N. A., Forming a Conditioned Reflex to an Autonomic Stimulus. *Trudy Physiologicheskikh Laboratoriyi Akademika I. P. Pavlova. Leningrad*, 1926, 195-198.

202 repetitions of the association between a tone of definite pitch and an injection which caused an attack of vomiting in a dog, made the tone effective in producing this response.

- 336A. POFFENBERGER, A. T., The Effects of Continuous Mental Work. *American Journal of Psychology*, 1927, 39, 283-296.

Eleven subjects lost 20% of output after adding "as long as they possibly could." At the end of about five hours judging compositions, the work was 4% poorer than at first.

Five hours work completing sentences showed no clear loss. Taking in succession fourteen forms of the Thorndike college entrance examination showed a final performance about 20% above the starting point. In the last two cases a period of rest brought no increase. In the addition and composition judging, the increase was about 8% after ten minutes of rest.

337. POLEY, I. C., *Precis Test*. Bloomington, Illinois, Public School Publishing Co., 1927.

A test of ability to make accurate and adequate summaries.

338. POLIAKOWA, A. T., Manoiloff's "Race" Reaction and its Application to the Determination of Paternity. *American Journal Phys. Anthropol.*, 1927, 10, 23-29.

Blood tests on over 1,500 individuals according to the Manoiloff method suggest a sound test for determining whether father and mother of a child belong to the same nacio-racial group.

339. POLISCH, K., Die Nachkommenschaft Delirium Tremens Kranker. Ein Beitrag zur Frage: Alkohol und Keimschädigung (The descendants of delirium tremens patients. A contribution to the problem of alcohol and germinal injury.) *Monatssch. f. Psychiat. und Neur.*, 1927, 64, 108-136.

A study of children born of fathers whose line of descent was well known, who showed no pathological tendency, but who had been using alcohol so long (more than five years) that delirium tremens had resulted. Children were followed, for the most part, until 20 to 30 years of age. The number of pregnancies and miscarriages, the infant mortality, the physical and mental condition of the survivors, are all approximately equivalent to the prevalence of these factors in the general population.

340. POPENOE, PAUL, Certain Significant Deficiencies of the Accomplishment Quotient. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, June 1927, 40.

600 pupils in Los Angeles given four standard tests with duplicate forms three days apart showed a correlation between the first A. Q. and the second of .28, which shows a reliability too low for common use. Correlation between A. Q. and I. Q. was -.46, indicating that there is a tendency for the greatest effort to be put forth by the dullest children.

341. POPENOE, PAUL, Eugenic Sterilization in California. *Social Hygiene*, 1927, 13, 257-268.

Sterilization has been carried out on about one patient in twelve.

342. POPENOE, PAUL, Success on Parole after Sterilization. *Proc. American Ass'n. Stud. Feeble-minded*, 1927, 32, 86-109.

A study of life on parole among 182 males and 423 females who had been sterilized indicated that sterilization did not tend to increase sexual immorality.

343. POPENOE, PAUL, The Lockstep in Schools. *Journal of Heredity*, 1927, 18, 63-65.

Correlation coefficients between intelligence and achievement quotients in twenty Los Angeles schools range from $-.23$ to $-.60$.

344. PRESSEY, L. C., A University Experimental Class. *Research Adventures in University Teaching*. Public School Pub. Co., 1927, p. 134.

71 students having experienced an informal laboratory course with much freedom, voted it harder than lecture, likely to cover less ground than lecture, but more interesting and on the whole preferable.

345. PRESSEY, L. C., A Class of Probation Students. *Ibid.*

The improvement of 31 probation students through a course in "How to Study."

346. PRESSEY, L. C. & MARTIN, HELEN C., What are the Crucial Differences between Good and Poor Students? *Ibid.*

Comparison of 25 A students and 25 E students of like intelligence showed significantly greater tendency for good students to apply what they learned outside the classroom, to review once in three weeks or oftener, to take notes more systematically, etc. Poor health and the need to work were found somewhat more often among the E students. Reports of 50 best students contrasted with 50 poorest in a psychology class showed good students reporting more regular habits of study, more use of topic headings, selective reading, and review.

347. PRESSEY, L. C. & S. L., Analysis of Three Thousand Illegibilities in the Handwriting of Children and of Adults. *Educational Research Bulletin*, 1927, 270-273.

Analysis of difficulties in 650 papers showed that over one-fourth of the illegibilities due to poor letter formation come from the five malformations of: m like u; r like i; e like i; d like cl; c like a. Other major defects were word-crowding, too angular, rewriting, and breaks between letters.

348. PRESSEY, S. L., Concerning Professional Training for College Teachers. *Research Adventures in University Teaching*, Public School Pub. Co., 1927, p. 140.

65% of the questionnaires returned by members of the American Psychological Association and the Educational Research Association

supported the judgment that some teaching method should be required in connection with the Ph.D., and 89% would include statistics, 76% a course in scientific method. 35% of the members of the American Psychological Association responding and 69% of the Educational Research Association responding, read less than 10 pages of a foreign language in the past year.

349. PRESSEY, S. L., College and Adolescent Needs. *Ibid.*, 81.

A questionnaire from 100 women students shows serious problems not yet solved in: 1. studies, 2. vocation, 3. morality and general life philosophy, 4. social relations, 5. queeriness or abnormality, 6. conflict with conventions, 7. relations to family. 88% acknowledged one serious problem; the median student reported two serious problems still unsolved. The greatest previous help had come from friends, the least from church.

350. PRESSEY, S. L., Concerning the Burden of Detail in Certain Textbooks. *Ibid.*, 127.

A text in English literature was found to mention 2,461 different items of fact, of which 57% appeared only once; 36% of the dates offered were confined to one text. An American history text mentioned 983 persons, 83% of them only once, giving 841 less than one line of characterization and 541 less than one line telling what they did. An introductory course in zoology required 4,226 words not in the Thorndike list, a vocabulary twice as great as the vocabulary of a first-year foreign language course.

351. PRESSEY, S. L., Three Samples Regarding Taken-for-granted Preparation for College Work. *Ibid.*, 100-106.

25% of students above freshman year did not know a past participle. 89% could not define an acre; 50% could not define a centimeter.

352. PRESSEY, S. L., L. C., and MARTIN, HELEN CORBETT, Research Adventures in University Teaching—and the Results. *Ibid.*, 122.

Students carried a load of 20 pages of reading per study hour very easily. The judgment of 125 students on previous courses showed best courses differing from worst courses primarily in: assignments explained; interesting text; outside reading interesting; pupils not made afraid to ask questions; much discussion by students; outline used; outline clear; frequent summaries; frequent demonstrations; application to present day problems; instructor lets pupils know exact standing at all times; tries to discover individual needs of pupils; gives reviews before examinations; examinations fair; examinations parallel class emphasis.

353. PROESCHER, F. & ARKUSH, A. S., Blood Groups in Mental Diseases. *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease*, 1927, 65, 569-584.

A study of 1,525 cases from California hospitals for the insane shows that persons having certain blood characteristics (isoagglutinin groups I and III) are four times as apt to develop a psychosis as are persons of another type (group IV). Distribution showed no relation to the types of psychosis.

354. PROKOFIEV, G. & ZELIONY, G., Des Modes d'Associations Cérébrales chez l'Homme et chez les Animaux (Modes of cerebral association in men and animals). *Journal de Psychologie*, 1926, 23, 1020-1028.

If animals learn to respond to a pressure signal with withdrawal produced by an electric shock, this same withdrawal can be produced by a metronome which had previously been connected with the pressure.

355. PYLE, WILLIAM HENRY, Intelligence and Teaching; an Experimental Study. *Educational Administration & Supervision*, October 1927, 433.

Comparison of small groups of "most successful" with "doubtful" or "failure" student teachers showed intelligence to be a barely perceptible favorable factor (correlation .01 in a class of 57). Grades in educational psychology were even less related to teaching success. Muscular speed, substitution, visual learning, analogies, key alphabet, and tachistoscope tests also failed to show consistent differences.

356. RAINEY, H. P. & ANDERSON, H., An Experiment in Classifying High School Pupils on the Basis of Achievement. *Journal of Educational Administration & Supervision*, 1927, 13, 528-544.

Grouping 1,200 students representing a wide variety of social and ability groups into homogeneous classes on the basis of past achievement in each subject resulted in a decrease of 12% in number of failures with no appreciable difference in average grades.

357. RAPHAEL, THEODORE, SEARLE, OLIVE, & SCHOLTEN, WILLIAM, Blood Groups in Schizophrenia and Manic-Depressive Psychoses. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, July 1927, 153.

Tests of blood type given to 800 schizophrenics and 300 manic depressives of both sexes indicated no specific relationships between the type of psychosis and the blood group distribution.

358. REED, E. F., Does the Individual Tend to be Consistently a Progressive or a Conservative? *Social Forces*, 1927, 6, 49-52.

255 questionnaires covering national, religious, governmental, sex, economic, and race issues came from very diverse groups, including several radical schools. Returns from radical groups were most consistent. No questionnaire was found conservative in every field. 30% showed consistent radicalism in all fields; 22% were consistent in all fields but one.

359. REMMERS, H. H. & BRANDENBURG, G. C., Experimental Data on the Purdue Rating Scale for Instructors. *Educational Administration & Supervision*, 1927, 13, 519-527.

A comparison of rating of instructors by students, using a scale in which the desirable end of the scale was always at the right, with the results achieved by a staggered scale. No difference in the amount of discrimination exercised could be found. The halo effect was not increased by having all zero values at the left.

360. REMMERS, H. H., SHOCK, N. W., & KELLY, E. L., An Empirical Study of the Validity of the Spearman-Brown Formula as Applied to the Purdue Rating Scale. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1927, 18, 187-195.

The Spearman-Brown formula predicted the actual results when the judgments of 2, 3, 4, and so on, judges were combined within a range of 2 P. E., up to and including 13 judges.

361. RICHARDS, O. W., Saving Time in Testing. *Personnel Journal*, 1927, 6, 281-282.

The correlation of the Otis General Intelligence Examination given to 319 college students for 15 minutes with that of the test given for 30 minutes was .84. The longer time limit increased reliability from .74 to .85.

362. RICHTER, C. P., A Study of the Electrical Skin Resistance and the Psychogalvanic Reflex in a case of Unilateral Sweating. *Brain*, 1927, 50 (Part 2), 216-235.

Lesion in the sympathetic nervous system of the patients gave opportunity to test several theories as to the basis for the changing resistance in the psychogalvanic reflex. The affected side gave very different responses. It would appear that the first short reaction to the needle is dependent upon the sweat glands, and the slower phase on deeper changes. Sweating produced by heat lowered resistance; when produced by pilocarpine there was an increased resistance.

363. RIDDLE, E. M., Stealing as a Form of Aggressive Behavior. *Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology*, 1927, 22, 40-51, 157-169.

A report of 435 cases, in 190 of which it was known that the individual had stolen. In the

group of children known to steal 34% had an I. Q. below 70; in the group who did not steal 47% were below 70. The classification of the amount of aggressiveness required to put them into action shows that those most mature mentally are most likely to engage in forgery. Children who steal from the home or stores range between 70 and 80 I. Q. The less intelligent groups break into slot machines and freight cars.

364. RIDDLE, OSCAR, The Quantitative Theory of Sex. *Science*, August 19, 1927, 169.

Summary of evidence suggests that sex chromosomes probably influence sex determination only by raising (male) or lowering (female) metabolic rate, and that other factors influencing metabolism can produce sex reversal.

365. ROBERTSON, I., Acid-base Equilibrium in Psychoses. *Lancet*, 1927, 213, 322-324.

A study of 10 normal adult men and women, 10 melancholics, 10 schizophrenics, and 10 cases of anxiety neuroses showed abnormalities of gastric secretion in 80% of the psychotic patients. Alveolar CO₂ curves paralleled the gastric disturbance. The change appeared to be fundamental to the system and not dependent upon diet. The depressed group had inadequate secretion, the agitated group showed hypersecretion.

366. ROBIE, THEODORE M., The Oedipus and Homosexual Complexes in Schizophrenia. *Psychological Quarterly*, October 1927, 468.

Two cases of men showing pampering and petting by mother, homosexual trends, in connection with dementia praecox. Author states that in most cases of schizophrenia the Oedipus complex can be demonstrated.

367. ROGERS, A. L., DURLING, D., & MCBRIDE, K., The Effect on the Intelligence Quotient of Change from a Poor to a Good Environment. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Soc. Study of Education*, 1927, Part I, 323-331.

64 girls from extremely poor homes were tested upon entering an institution. A year and a half after having lived in this more favorable environment, no change in I. Q. was apparent.

368. ROGERS, F. R., Tests and Measurement Programs in the Redirection of Physical Education. *Bureau of Publications, Teachers' College, Columbia School Administration Series*, 1927, pp. 166.

In equating for athletic performance 600 high school boys yielded results indicating that weight was more important than height, and chronological age the least important. Performance tests have been developed and are here described, including push-ups on parallel bars, chinning on rings, dynamometer measures

of grip, back and leg strength, and spirometer measures of lung capacity. The physical fitness of an individual will be found by comparing him with others of the same weight and age. The apparatus described costs about \$135.00, and it can be quickly and reliably administered.

369. ROSENQUEST, C. M., The Occupational Status of the Texas Convict. *Journal of Delinquency*, 1927, 11, 239-256.

Data collected in 1924 concerning 3,360 male convicts indicates some relationship to occupation. Violation of the liquor law and incest are found primarily among farmers. Burglars and thieves come primarily from manufacturing and mechanical industries. Public service is low in crime. Nearly all criminals began work at 11 years of age or before. Violators of the liquor law and murderers began work at an earlier age, while forgers were longer in school. There was about 17% of irregular employment in the total group; 25% of the white burglars were irregularly employed.

370. ROSS, C. C., An Experiment in Motivation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1927, 18, 337-346.

Experiment by the rotation method on 59 college students asked to make groups of 5 tallies, showed a group completely informed of its progress gaining 6% more than a group told simply that it was equal to, above, or below the average, and 8% more than a group given no information. Results appeared both for speed and accuracy. This motivation seemed more effective with bright pupils than with dull ones. Bright pupils with no information made poorest progress.

371. ROSS, CLAY C. & KLISE, NIRA M., Study Methods of College Students in Relation to Intelligence and Achievement. *Educational Administration & Supervision*, November 1927, 551-562.

A questionnaire given to 540 college students covering 13 factors in the method of study showed that for the same level of intelligence, better methods of study produced better results. Of the least intelligent quarter 71% of those attaining high scholarship have had training in study, whereas only 25% of those ranking low in scholarship have had such training. No clear differences seem to exist between the bright and the dull students in method of study employed.

372. ROTHMAN, PHILIP E., Delinquency and Disease. *Journal of Delinquency*, December 1927, 294.

Behavior disorders are sometimes connected with obvious physical disorders like congenital malformations of the brain, Little's disease, Mongolism, microcephaly, progressive lenticular degeneration, and Friedrich's ataxia. Another group may show no neurological manifestations, and pass a good physical examination,

and yet show cruelty, sex offenses, disobedience, truancy, automatism, or degeneration, as a result of encephalitis, epilepsy, "amok" among the Malays, Tay-Sachs disease, etc.

373. SANARYAHZ, E., Investigation of the Emotions of the Young Delinquent, using Professor Belsky's Method. *Problems in the Study and Education of Personality*, 1926, No. 2-3, 222-230.

A test for use in interviewing the young delinquent. The test asks for his reaction to realistic tales of social and unsocial behavior and to pictures; it aims at insight rather than a score.

374. SANFORTH, A. T., Study in Social Attitudes of High School Boys and Girls. *School & Society*, December 3, 1927, 723.

240 pupils in a West Virginia high school answered a questionnaire given by the school superintendent. Practically all students belonged to some club. Music, dramatic, and athletic organizations were favored. 80% wanted high school fraternities. All wished more social training. Student planning was favored. Activities best liked were dances, dramatics, and picnics.

375. SAWDON, E. W., Should Children Learn Poems in "Wholes" or in "Parts?" *Forum of Education*, November 1927, 182-197.

A report of five experiments with small groups of boys (9, 15, 14, and 20 per group respectively), measuring progress by counting words correctly reproduced. With a variety of materials the "whole" method seemed superior in each experiment.

376. SCHINDLER, R., Nervensystem und Spontane Blutungen mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der hysterischen Ecchymosen und der Systematik der hamorrhagischen Diathesen (The nervous system and spontaneous bleeding with special consideration of hysterical echymosis and the system of hemorrhagic diathesis.) *Beihefte z. Monatsschr. f. Psychiat. u. Neur.*, 1927, No. 42.

Case of skin hemorrhage due entirely to nervous or psychic causes.

377. SCHMIDT, P., Über biologische Altersbekämpfung (The biological attack on senility). *Arch. f. Frauenkd. u. Konst.*, 1927, 13, 89-122.

Steinach operation performed on senile Chinese prisoners produced unequivocal rejuvenation, when the element of auto-suggestion was controlled.

378. SCHNECK, MAXIMILIAN, The Woodworth Psychoneurotic Inventory as an Instrument of Differential Diagnosis. *Master's Essay*, Columbia University, 1927.

A study of Woodworth questionnaires used in government hospital work, endeavoring to see whether it would be possible to differentiate neurasthenics, epileptics, psychoneurotics, hysteria, and concussion cases. Epileptics seemed to be distinguishable by questions referable to dizziness, fainting, and convulsions. Neurasthenia was distinguished by questions referring to appetite, sleep, and general well-being. Differences at other points of the test did not seem to be diagnostic.

379. School System: Advance of the American. A summary of the facts reviewed in the Research Bulletin of the Nat'l. Education Association, September 1927.

Length of life for a child born in Geneva in the 16th century was 21 years; in the U. S. in 1921 it was 58 years. In the five years 1920-25 value of school property in the U. S. increased from \$112 per pupil to \$173 per pupil. Average length of the school term increased from 130 days in 1880 to 170 days in 1925. Average salary of teachers in the U. S. in 1925 was \$1,252, or 64% of the average income of all wage earners. High school enrollment has increased from 110,000 in 1880 to 3,651,000 in 1925. The average for the U. S. as a whole was 6.9 grades.

380. SCHRAMMEL, H. E., Factors in a College Man's Choice of a Career. *Vocational Guidance Magazine*, 1927, 5, 214-218.

A survey of over 5,000 high school seniors in Illinois showed that over 53% of them had definitely chosen their future occupation. About the same percentage was found in other groups. Engineering, the legal and medical professions were chosen by more than ten times as great a proportion as these occupations represent in the population.

381. SCHRUMPF-PIERON, P., Tobacco and Physical Efficiency: A Digest of Clinical Data. *New York: Hoeber*, 1927, pp. xiii + 134, \$1.85.

A summary based upon an annotated bibliography of about seven hundred titles. Decrease in accuracy is sometimes but not always found. Most studies seem to show undesirable effects on psychological processes.

382. SCHUMACHER, H. C., The Unmarried Mother: A Socio-Psychiatric Viewpoint. *Mental Hygiene*, October 1927, 775-783.

Over 75% of unmarried mothers are under 21 years of age. Most of them come from the economically inferior strata of the population; the majority of those gainfully employed are domestic servants or semi-skilled factory workers. To a large extent they are of inferior mentality; there is a great divergence of statistics on this point, percentages varying from 7 to 98. Over one-half of them have been previously delinquent, a third of them previously immoral. Over half of them come

from homes in which there are immorality and alcoholism, poverty and dependency, absence of parental training and guidance.

383. SCHWEGLER, RAYMOND ALFRED, A Study of Introvert-Extravert Responses to Certain Test Situations. *Ph. D. Dissertation, Teachers' College, 1927.*

A series of twelve miscellaneous psychological tests applied to 103 introverts 12 to 18 years old contrasted with a similar group of paired extraverts showed few important differences. There was a slight tendency for the introverted to be slower in verbal response, less freely productive of words, less inclined to report intense effects.

384. SEATON, J. T., Errors of College Students in the Mechanics of English Composition. *Pressey, Research Adventures in University Teaching, Public School Pub. Co., 1927, p. 96.*

An analysis of 621 papers showed a frequency of 21 errors per thousand words, punctuation being most frequently in error.

385. SEROTA, K. E., A Comparative Study of 100 Italian Children at the Six-year Level. *Psychological Clinic, 1927, 16, 216-231.*

100 six-year-old Italian children were compared with 400 other first-graders. Performance tests indicated that they did not differ markedly from the others in intelligence, but were handicapped by language.

386. SHAFFER, L. F., A Learning Experiment in the Social Studies. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 1927, 18, 572-591.*

It seems to make little difference, so far as information tests can measure the outcome, whether material about the industrial revolution be presented to children in the form of text-book narrative, stories, or generalizations.

387. SHEIDEMAN, N. V., A Comparison of Two Methods of Instruction. *School & Society, 1927, 25, 672-674.*

500 students in elementary psychology were divided into two sections equivalent for grade points and intelligence percentiles. One section received two lectures a week and one weekly conference hour in groups of 20-25. The other spent six hours a week following an outline and studying individually under staff supervision. Objective examinations given at the end of the month and of the year showed an average difference favoring the individualized work of 1.73, which is 2.5 times its P. E.

388. SHELDON, W. H., Social Traits and Morphologic Types. *Personnel Journal, 1927, 6, 47-55.*

Ratings were obtained upon 155 fraternity members; the average reliability coefficient on a rerating was .88. Correlations with physi-

cal measurements were all below .25, the highest being .24 between transverse epigastric diameter and ratings on aggressiveness. All traits rated were associated slightly with general bigness of body, except in the case of perseverance where low negative relationships obtained. Significant intercorrelations were: leadership and aggressiveness .52; emotionality and aggressiveness .52; leadership and sociability .47. Sociability gave a negative correlation with both psychological test scores and scholarship.

389. SHRUBSALL, F. C., The Sequelae of Encephalitis Lethargica. *British Journal of Medical Psychology, 1927, 7, Part 2, 210.*

Of 1,325 cases of encephalitis in London during seven years ending December 1925, 37% proved fatal, 28% seemed perfectly well, 5% were partially and 14% totally incapacitated. In the last group 4% represented Parkinsonism and 9% disorder of conduct. Some sequelae came on a year or two after apparent complete recovery. Some patients became inert and sleepy during the day with excitement, shouting, singing, and manic excitement at night. Mental deterioration may go any length to imbecility. Irritability and lassitude may alternate. Stealing and sex perversions may become prominent. The most marked feature is morbid restlessness.

390. SHUTTLEWORTH, F. K., Review of Literature on Social Relations of Children. *Psychological Bulletin, December 1927, 24, 708.*

A miscellany of studies, many of them involving emotional and character factors.

391. SHUTTLEWORTH, F. K., The Influence of Early Religious Home Training on College Sophomore Men. *Religious Education, January 1927, 57.*

A comparison of those students with a religious home background, i. e., students who said that they regarded their home as very religious, that they were compelled to attend church, had grace at meals and family worship, with those students whose homes were characterized by none of these factors. Correlation with religious belief and experience now was -.13, indicating a slight tendency for greater religious attitude on the part of those who did not have a strict home training. Correlation with present activities in the church was .44, indicating that the habits of work in religious institutions persisted after the beliefs had been altered. Correlation with desire to succeed financially was .27, indicating that the students from the more religious homes were a little more interested in getting rich. The students from religious homes described themselves as morbidly conscientious to an extent indicated by a correlation of .22. Correlation between coming from a religious home and making a good moral judgment score was .00; between coming from a religious home and

cheating on college examinations, .00; between coming from a religious home and intelligence, —.13; between coming from a religious home and school grades, —.29. Apparently there is some tendency for students from non-religious homes to work at their school tasks a little more effectively.

- 391A. SHUTTLEWORTH, F. K., The Measurement of Character and Environmental Factors Involved in Scholastic Success. *Univ. of Iowa Studies: Studies in Character*, 1927, 1, No. 2, pp. 80.

Correlation between reading comprehension tests or high school subject matter tests and college grades have fallen, at Iowa, consistently between .45 and .65. Four intelligence tests have given results in predicting college grades between .30 and .60. A combination battery with first semester grades gave a correlation of .54. Correlations of first semester grades with second semester grades were .68 or .70.

A test of stimulus words to be marked liked or disliked was scored to yield a correlation of .63 with ratings on being "energetic" or "lazy," but when given to 237 new students the previous scoring method dropped to .09.

In 1926 a battery of three tests, the first an "assayer" recording liking on a scale from dislike very much to like very much, from 200 items, the second a self-rating device involving checking on a line between two contrasting traits, there being 75 of these pairs, the third a questionnaire on home and high school life, was given to 494 men and 269 women. The average self-correlation for each item of the assayer was .46, there being 62% identical responses and 95% within one step on a 5-point scale. Comparisons were made between high and low grades, and between high and low intelligence. Diagnostic items were chosen if the former difference was significantly greater than the latter. The higher grade students differed from the low grade in showing (1) less liking for mechanical activities; (2) more liking for iconoclasm, unconventionality, independence; (3) preference for toleration and idealism with dislike of fundamental religious terms; (4) less liking for traditional patriotism and more for internationalism; (5) less liking for popular amusements, more for cultural interests.

The reliability of the self-ratings averaged .64 per item (38 cases) or a reliability of score (225 cases) of .48 which score correlated .37 with grades and .31 with intelligence. The item study revealed that high grade students differed, having (1) less interest in fundamentalism in religion, less religious home training; (2) more interest in intellectual, artistic pursuits; (3) less evidence of worry, poor memory, confusion, lack of concentration; (4) less dependence on social relatives, more enjoyment in being alone; (5) parents stricter and more interested in school progress.

The questionnaire showed a reliability of score as high as .77 and correlations between questionnaire score and grades amounting to .57. Items not diagnostic included: reasons for coming to University, certainty or type of vocational choice, reported study habits, ease or difficulty of high school course, jobs in school, father's occupation, church relationship, etc. The good students were significantly more likely to report that they ranked high in high school classes, participated in debate, oratory, dramatics, music, etc., came from large towns and high schools, did not have summer jobs, spent more than \$550 per semester, took German, Latin, or French, did not participate in high school athletics, did have music, art, and magazines in the home.

392. SISTER MARY I. H. M., & HUGHES, MARGARET M., A Comparative Study of the Value of Various Rating Devices as used in the Normal High School Class. *Catholic Educational Review*, April 1927, 193.

Correlation (rank) of various methods of grading 30 pupils in high school chemistry showed I. Q. giving a coefficient of .19 with student's own estimate; .36 with standard test; .37 with other students' estimates; .39 with teacher's estimate; .42 with examination rating, and .46 with average of estimate of self and others. Student's own estimate and teacher's estimate gave a correlation of .54. Teacher and other students agreed to an extent of .82. The standard test gave a correlation of .68 with midterm examination; of .76 with other students' estimate, and .73 with teacher's estimate.

393. SLAVENS, G. S., & BROGAN, A. P., Moral Judgments of High School Students. *International Journal of Ethics*, October 1927, 57-69.

Fifteen undesirable practices were ranked by students in Texas University and Texas high schools. The resulting order showed stealing, cheating, and lying as the worst three; Sabbath breaking stood 8th; selfishness 10th; idleness 13th; dancing 15th. The most frequent vices among high school boys were swearing and smoking; among high school girls, dancing and gossip; among university men, smoking and swearing; among university women, dancing and gossip. The frequency differed markedly between the sexes. Correlation between badness and frequency is, —.50. The most marked differences were that university women considered vulgar talk worse than did university men; university men rated Sabbath breaking as much less serious than did the high school pupils, and rated selfishness as much worse than did the high school girls; university women considered gossip more serious than did high school girls. Snobbishness, however, was approved by university women much more than by other groups.

394. SLOCOMBE, C. S. & BINGHAM, W. V., Men who have Accidents. *Personnel Journal*, 1927, 6, 251-257.

Operating a street car with safety is shown to have some correlation with blood pressure and skill in saving electric power by coasting.

395. SLONAKER, J. R., The Effect of Different Amounts of Sexual Indulgence in the Albino Rat on Food Consumption. *American Journal of Physiology*, 1927, 83, 302-308.

The Effect on Growth of Different Amounts of Sexual Indulgence in the Albino Rat. *American Journal of Physiology*, 1927, 82, 318-327.

The Effect on Spontaneous Activity of Different Amounts of Sexual Indulgence in the Albino Rat. *American Journal of Physiology*, 1927, 82, 376-380.

Three studies showing that rats with more frequent sex activity tend (1) to do less voluntary running in a revolving cage, especially where nursing is involved; (2) to eat more; (3) to grow more rapidly in early life, but less rapidly if giving birth at an early age to young.

396. SMITH, P. E., Genital System Responses to Daily Pituitary Transplants. *Proc. Soc. Exper. Biology & Medicine*, 1927, 24, 337-338.

Daily pituitary transplants resulted in marked increase in size of external genitals.

397. SNEDDEN, D. S., A Study in Disguised Intelligence Tests. *Teachers' College Contributions to Education*, No. 291, 1927.

A test disguised as an interview for what was presumably another purpose was administered to a group of 113 children corresponding to the normal adult mental age distribution. The test took less than ten minutes, but showed a reliability of .96 and a correlation with criteria composed of 3 standard group tests as high as .83.

398. SOROKIN, P. A., Leaders of Labor and Radical Movements in the United States and Foreign Countries. *American Journal of Sociology*, 1927, 33, 382-411.

A study of 1,600 leaders of labor and radical movements in various countries shows that a very high percentage are foreign born; about 20% hold college degrees; birthplace is not particularly correlated with industrialization.

399. SOUTH, EARL BENNETT, Some Psychological Aspects of Committee Work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1927, 11, 348-368 & 437-464.

Using about 120 students per experiment, the following results, by sex, type of problem, and size of group, were found. Groups were equated for intelligence.

Problem	MEN	
	Small Group (3)	Large Group (6)
1. Judging emotions from photographs.	170 sec. 7 correct	182 sec. 8 correct
2. Learning the correct combination of 12 wooden keys to ring a buzzer..	186 sec.	158 sec.
3. Solving Bridge problem	683 sec.	477 sec.
4. Judging value of English composition	875 sec. 0.47 quality	1487 sec. 0.73 quality
Problem	WOMEN	
	Small Group (3)	Large Group (6)
1. Judging emotions from photographs.	157 sec. 8 correct	208 sec. 7 correct
2. Learning the correct combination of 12 wooden keys to ring a buzzer..	225 sec.	175 sec.
3. Solving Bridge problem	804 sec.	948 sec.
4. Judging value of English composition	759 sec. 0.63 quality	1029 sec. 0.60 quality
Problem	BOTH	
	Small Group (3)	Large Group (6)
1. Judging emotions from photographs.	171 sec. 8 correct	191 sec. 7 correct
2. Learning the correct combination of 12 wooden keys to ring a buzzer..	210 sec.	165 sec.
3. Solving Bridge problem	746 sec.	665 sec.
4. Judging value of English composition	831 sec. 0.49 quality	1291 sec. 0.68 quality

Differences are not more than three times P. E. of difference. A time limit increased speed and usually accuracy also.

400. SPENCER, L. T., College Achievement of Private and Public School Entrants. *School & Society*, 1927, 32.

Yale students prepared in public schools surpassed those from private schools and those transferring from other colleges in intelligence, grades, and percent graduating.

401. SQUIRES, P. C., "Wolf Children" of India. *American Journal of Psychology*, 1927, 38, 313-315.

Quotations from a letter received from the Rev. J. A. L. Singh, head of the orphanage at Midnapur, Bengal, in regard to two children found living in a den with a family of wolves. The children were first seen by natives on various occasions in 1920; they were brought to the orphanage in November of that year. The older was supposed to be about 8 years old, the younger about 2. The younger died shortly after being brought to the orphanage. In 1926, the date of writing the letter, the surviving child can utter about 40 words, and is able to form a few sentences, using two or at most three words. She never talks unless spoken to, and when spoken to may or may not answer. She is possessed of acute hearing and evidences an intensely acute, animal like sense of smell. She does not play at all, and does not mingle with other children; she sees better at night than during the day, and seldom sleeps after midnight. She is averse to all cleanliness. At first she would not use her hands for eating or drinking, but would put her head down to her plate like a dog. At present she uses her hands for eating, and walks on both legs, upright, but cannot run at all. When first taken, both children ran about on all fours.

402. STARBUCK, E. D., An Empirical Study of Mysticism. *Proceedings 6th International Congress of Philosophy*, 1928, New York, Longmans-Green, 1926, 87-94.

Mystics and non-mystics among 550 students in elementary psychology at the University of Iowa selected themselves by self-ratings on a scale including a number of aspects of the mystical experience. Comparison of the 50 extreme samples of both types showed the mystics more suggestible (9 times probable error of difference); non-mystics were better coordinated (4 times P. E. of difference) and made better scores on serial reaction tests (4 times P. E. of difference) and on intelligence tests (4 to 6 times P. E. of difference). Mystics were inferior in ability to endure electrical shock (6 times P. E. of difference).

403. STARR, H. E., Physiological Chemistry in the Service of Psychology, as Illustrated by determinations of alveolar carbon dioxide tension and the hemoglobin content of the blood correlated with clinical diagnosis. *Abstract in Psychological Bulletin*, 24:186, March 1927.

In lethargic stammers an excess of tension of carbon dioxide was discovered, remediable

by changed habits of eating and breathing. Lessening of tension brought with it improvement in temperament.

404. STEIN, M. L., A Trial with Criteria of the MacQuarrie Test of Mechanical Ability. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1927, 11, 391-393.

Correlations with the Stenquist, Army Alpha, and Kohs Block Design Test among 15 students selected for outstanding mechanical or language ability indicate that the MacQuarrie is a slightly better test than the Stenquist.

405. STETSON, F. L. & WOOTON, F. C., Study of the Social Science Teachers in Oregon High Schools, 1925-1926. *Educational Administration & Supervision*, 1927, 13, 73-84.

Among 210 social science teachers in Oregon, 36 had studied no college history, 72 no economics, 92 no sociology, 114 no political science; 18 had studied no professional education.

406. STONE, CALVIN P., & DOE-KULMAN, LOIS, Notes on the Mental Development of Children Exhibiting the Somatic Signs of Puberty Praecox. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Soc. Stud. Educ.*, 1927, I, 389. Also *Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology*, October-December 1927, 22, 291-324.

A survey of the literature revealed 190 cases of puberty praecox, in 62 of which data on mental development were given. 21% seemed above average, 38% average, 41% below average in intelligence. Height, weight, muscular development, strength, bone ossification, dentition, often greatly accelerated. There is no clear evidence of a hereditary basis.

407. STRECKER, E. A. & WILLEY, G. F., Prognosis in Schizophrenia. *Journal of Mental Science*, 1927, 73, 9-39.

38 dementia praecox patients who recovered differed from the normal dementia praecox type by (1) having a psychosis which was an evolution of former peculiarities; (2) precipitated by a really significant situation which is reflected in the psychosis; (3) acute or stormy onset; (4) involving infection or exhaustion. If emotional display is absent or quite inconsistent with the mental content, prognosis seemed poor.

408. STRONG, EDWARD K., JR., A Vocational Interest Test. *Educational Record*, 1927, 8, 107-121.

The test includes responses of liking, indifference, or dislike to occupations, studies, peculiarities of people, games, activities, etc. Scoring has differentiated interests characteristic of 16 occupations with reliabilities ranging from .76 to .91. Of 36 men from an advertising agency rated by three judges, the test

predicated success for 73% of the successful ones and failure for all the unsuccessful. Among 50 life insurance salesmen, 45% of those rating A on the list are selling over \$200,000 worth of paid-up insurance per year, while only 8% of those rating B on the test do so well.

409. STRONG, EDWARD K., JR., Differentiation of Certified Public Accountants from Other Occupational Groups. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1927, 18, 227-238.

Data secured from an Interest Analysis Blank, adapted by K. M. Cowdery from one used by Max Freyd—263 items. The records of 99 C. P. A.'s were compared with those of 598 men, including 51 bankers, 44 office workers, 40 lawyers, 42 engineers, 48 personnel managers, 50 authors, 65 school teachers, 51 life insurance salesmen, 48 advertising agency men, 53 doctors, 50 ministers, and 56 artists. In the distribution of scores only 20.5% of the men not C. P. A.'s fall within the distribution of the C. P. A.'s. The first 49 records received of the C. P. A.'s were selected for more intensive study; these 49 score slightly higher than the remaining 50. It was brought out by the data that C. P. A.'s score most like executives, bankers, office workers, and life insurance salesmen; they score least like artists, ministers, doctors, authors, and lawyers. Only 5% of lawyers rate A in C. P. A. interest, and only 6% of C. P. A.'s rate A in law.

410. STRONG, EDWARD K., JR., Vocational Guidance of Executives. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, October 1927, 331.

A "progress report" in an intensive study of the interests of men in various occupations. Data were secured by the use of an interest analysis blank containing 263 items. From the reports of 80 executives it is shown that between 10% and 20% have interests that cannot be distinguished from those of life insurance salesmen, office workers, engineers, lawyers, or C. P. A.'s; a few have the interests which clearly characterize personnel managers, bankers, and ministers, but none are to be definitely defined as artists. It appears that many successful men in each occupation will rate A or B in a considerable number of occupations other than their own.

411. STRYKER, SUE B., Undergrading as a Cause of Delinquency. *School & Society*, December 24, 1927, 821.

A 12-year-old boy of average I. Q. without other apparent predisposing causes began truancy after a demotion, and returned to satisfactory work after promotion on condition.

412. STUMP, N. F., A Classroom Experiment in Logical Learning. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1927, 11, 117-126.

16 seniors in civics learning an outline of facts and principles showed, when each was permitted to progress at his own rate, the most rapid learner learning more in 9 days than the slowest learner learned in 20 days.

413. STURGES, HERBERT A., What College Students Think of Sunday School. *Religious Education*, 1927, 22, 278.

About 130 questionnaires answered by sophomore college students of sociology in the University of Washington indicate a predominance of attitudes set by Sunday school training. 51% say that on the whole they still believe what they were taught in Sunday school. Sample questions with percent of students now agreeing with each, follow:

The purpose of the Sunday school should be to prepare for church membership....	99%
The purpose of the Sunday school should be the salvation of souls.....	92%
Resurrection of Jesus.....	71%
Story of the flood.....	66%
Resurrection of Lazarus.....	65%
Existence of heaven.....	55%
Kingdom of God depends on literal second coming of Christ.....	49%
Jesus had no human father.....	48%
The kingdom of God is located in heaven.....	42%
Peter walked on the water.....	42%
Salvation from our sins through the crucifixion	34%
Existence of hell.....	30%
Sojourn of Jonah inside a whale.....	28%
Effect of prayer on the weather.....	24%

Only 65% believed the kingdom of God to include rescue of the world from poverty and war.

414. STURTEVANT, SARAH M. & STRANG, RUTH, A Study of the 24-hour Schedule of 40 High School Girls. *Teachers College Record*, June 1927, 994.

Forty girls of the Horace Mann School were studied. Pupils with higher I. Q. had a lower index of studiousness. Most common forms of recreation were walking, visiting friends, theater and movies. Time spent on music and dancing was much larger than that spent on home studies.

415. STUTSMAN, RACHEL, Case Study of a Superior Girl with Personality Defects. *Pedagogical Seminary*, December 1927, 591.

A nursery school attempting for two years to alter the tendency of a two-year-old girl, I. Q. 132, to play to the gallery, to avoid unpleasant tasks, and to regard her own judgment as infallible, regards the work as only partially successful.

416. SULLIVAN, E. B., Attitude in Relation to Learning. *Psychological Monographs*, 1927, 36, No. 3.

Subjects informed that a generalization would be asked for were more successful in giving it than subjects given the same material without such information. Time required to learn a memory series is increased by a feeling of failure, speeded up by a feeling of success. The unusual feeling seems to be more effective, since the failure attitude produced most effect in the bright group, the success attitude most effect in the dull group.

417. SWANSON, ELAINE E., *An Analysis of Whole and Part Method in Learning. Master's Essay, Columbia University, 1927.*

An exhaustive summary of all investigations, including British, French, and German, dealing with the problem of the relative efficiency of whole and part learning. The investigations indicate that there is no clear superiority for any form of the whole or part method in learning or memorizing.

418. SYMONDS, PERCIVAL M. & PENNY, E. M., *The Increasing of English Vocabulary in the English Class. Journal of Educational Research, 1927, 15, 93-103.*

Five or ten minutes per day for four months spent on vocabulary practice by Horace Mann high school pupils brought about an increase of 6.9 words per hundred, whereas a control group gained 2.2 words per hundred. The gain exceeds that found by Thorndike from two years' Latin study.

419. TACHIBANA, K., *On the Learning Process of the Aged. Japanese Journal of Psychology, 1927, 2, No. 4, 635-653.*

Comparisons of one or two aged subjects (aged 60-69) with one or two persons about 20 years of age in simple motor tests. Little learning was evident on the part of the older persons.

420. TAKEI, K., *On Visual Discrimination and its Learning with Chickens. Japanese Journal of Psychology, 1927, 2, No. 1, 32-87.*

Nine young chicks were trained to react positively to gray and negatively to black, learning the reaction in from 8 to 10 days; a relative choice between gray and white did not appear, there being a chance distribution. Chicks were taught to choose the larger circle in from 2 to 7 days; when given a still larger one they chose it 7 out of 10 times. Chicks trained to choose a parallelogram with a 45 degree angle rather than a rectangle in 2 to 6 days, failed to show a preference when the size was markedly varied.

421. TALLMAN, GLADYS G., *A Comparative Study of Identical and Non-Identical Twins with Respect to Intelligence Resemblances. 27th Yearbook Nat'l. Soc. Stud. Education, 1927, Part I, 83-86.*

Stanford-Binet I. Q.'s showed an average difference in the case of siblings of 13 points of I. Q.; the average difference between twins is 7 points of I. Q. Brothers and sisters less than two years apart in chronological age showed 12 points of difference in I. Q. Twins, both being of the same sex, showed an average difference of only 6 points of I. Q., whereas with boy-girl pairs there was an average difference of 8 points.

422. TARGOWLA, R., LAMACHE, A., & DAUSSY, H., *Débilité mentale, trouble du caractère et débilité motrice chez deux sœurs jumelles. Atteinte disséminée fruste du névraxe. (Mental debility, disorders of character and motor debility in twin sisters. Diffused abortive involvement of the central nervous system). Enceph., 1927, 22, 487-492.*

Twin sisters both had convulsions at three years of age and developed mild psychoses at 40.

423. TAYLOR, HOWARD, *The Influence of the Teacher on Relative Class Standing in Arithmetic Fundamentals and Reading Comprehension. 27th Yearbook Nat'l. Soc. Stud. Education, 1927, Part II, 97-110.*

105 elementary school teachers rated by their principals (reliability about .68) showed no significant differences in the achievement test results of children who had been under good teachers and children who had been under poor teachers. Correlation between teacher rating, final arithmetic with initial arithmetic standing, overageness and intelligence constant, .15. In the case of reading this partial correlation was .17. The most significant factor in both cases was initial ability, .30 for arithmetic with all other things constant, .62 for reading with all other things constant. Intelligence of pupils always mattered more than ability of teacher, other things being equal.

424. TEAGARDEN, FLORENCE M., *Change of Environment and the I. Q. Journal of Applied Psychology, August 1927, 289-296.*

Rather detailed description of two girls of low grade intelligence who had lived in unspeakably bad home environment. After five years in an exceptionally fine cottage home there has been no change in I. Q., although moral, physical, and social habits have been entirely altered.

425. TERRY, PAUL W., *The Social Experience of Junior High School Pupils. School Review, March 1927, 194; April 1927, 272.*

In a North Carolina junior high school 900 boys and girls filled out a questionnaire on extra-curricular activities. The average pupil belongs to 2.4 voluntary organizations in addition to

classes, home rooms, assemblies, etc. 75% of the pupils belong to one or more. The boys have a larger variety of participation than the girls. 18% of the pupils are serving as officers, the girls exceeding the boys. 96% of pupils belong to at least one voluntary organization outside the school. The average participation is 2.3 organizations. Twice as many are being trained as officers in the non-school organizations.

426. THOMPSON, L. L. & O'BRIEN, F. P., Student Activities in the Small High School. *School & Society*, 1927, 25, 318-320.

Among 116 small high schools in Kansas (median enrollment 65) 45 different activities were listed, music, dramatics, and athletics prevailing. In ten of twelve schools athletes equalled or excelled the school grades of non-participants. Otis intelligence test scores were almost the same for both participants and non-participants.

427. THORNDIKE, E. L., A Fundamental Theorem in Modifiability. *Proc. Nat. Acad. Science*, 1927, 13, 15-18.

Subjects carried on such exercises as drawing a line of estimated length, or writing a number from 0 to 9, etc. They showed no tendency for the responses which had been most frequent during this long practice series to appear more often in the last 20 trials than in the first 20 trials. "Greater relative frequency is not a selective force."

428. THORNDIKE, E. L., Mental Discipline in High School Studies. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1924, January and February, 15, 83.

BROLYER, C. R., THORNDIKE, E. L. & WOODYARD, E., A Second Study of Mental Discipline in High School Studies. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1927, 18, 377-404.

Results from 5,000 pupils are added to the 1923 study involving about 9,000 pupils. Intelligence tests given at the beginning and end of the year showed a slight tendency (.09) for brighter pupils to make larger gains during the year. Subjects studied made so little difference that if some pupils took a program of stenography, typing, cooking, sewing, commercial, shop, Spanish and civics, while others took 60% of their work in mathematics, Latin, French, physics, chemistry, etc., the average person in the latter group will gain only about 7 points more than one in the former. The average gain from first to second test was in the neighborhood of 30 points. Mathematical training in general helped most with mathematical elements, verbal training most with verbal elements.

429. THORNDIKE, E. L., The Influence of Primacy. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, February, 1927, 18-29.

Adults asked to estimate the length of strips of paper, the areas of various shapes and sizes, to draw lines of given length, to make words out of certain combinations, and to make up spelling for nonsense words, showed no tendency to make later in the series the same response made at the beginning of the series. Being first does not make a connection stronger, but being strong may make a connection likely to be first.

- 429A. THORNDIKE, E. L., & STAFF OF THE INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, Resemblance of Siblings in Intelligence. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Soc. for the Study of Education, Part 1*, 41-53.

Using unusually long and accurately scaled tests of intelligence, with two forms given approximately a year apart, and application of correction for attenuation, the correlation of intelligence of siblings two to four years apart in age, all attending high school, is about .60. This is slightly higher than the resemblance found by Pearson for physical traits.

- 429B. THORNDIKE, E. L., The Law of Effect. *American Journal of Psychology*, 1927, 39:212-222.

Experiments with groups of 5 subjects, 6 subjects, and 7 subjects estimating strips of paper from 3 to 27 centimeters in length, during a series of 50 judgments showed a reduction in error when given no information as to their success or failure amounting to $60\% \pm 12$, whereas the group given an announcement of "right" or "wrong" after each estimate showed an average percent of reduction of 50% to 60%, P. E. being about 5%. Subjects drawing 3-inch and 6-inch lines without announcement of accuracy showed three improving and three growing worse, the average total reduction in error being 75 ± 70 as compared with 143 ± 27 when subjects were given information as to "right" and "wrong" responses. Another group of 24 subjects showed a reduction of 190 ± 74 when given the "right" or "wrong" responses. Apparently the effects of a connection do work back in some way to alter the probability of its recurrence.

430. THRASHER, FREDERICK M., The Gang. *Univ. of Chicago*, 1927, pp. 571, \$3.00.

A descriptive collection of information about 1313 gangs, gathered over a period of 7 years and presented in the form of 272 brief citations inserted in a general discussion. Gangs are shown to be located primarily in "interstitial" areas of cities, e. g. between business and better residence sections. 22% had from 6-10 members, 22% from 10-15, 17% from 16-20 members. 37 gangs were less than six in size, 38 had over 100 members. Many center around one or two figures, developing informally, neighborhood proximity being a major factor. In age 38% were made up of members 11-17 years of age, 25% between 16 and 25. In 154

gangs a wide range of ages, sometimes 12 to 20, was found. Marriage often marks the termination of gang activity. Programs include fights, rough-house, junk salvaging, auto robbery, train robbery, commercial sports, and stag parties. They often develop into conventional athletic clubs. Sex immorality is not infrequent but is secondary to their program. Movie attendance in a sample of 100 members averaged three times a week, 48% expressing a preference for wild-west cowboy films; 29% more chose thrillers involving shooting, fighting, adventure, races, and war. 726 had only outdoor places of meeting; 562 had club houses of some sort. 40% involved mixed nationalities. Among those of a single national predominance, 17% were Polish, 11% Italian, 9% Irish, 7% Negro. 25 gangs (3%) were mixed colored and white. Boys usually are of the underprivileged type, the gang affording almost the only recreation and the chief opportunity for social status. Leaders are described as of the "hard rock," "dare-devil," "scrapper," "politician," "wise guy," and "accidental hero" type. The chief quality for leadership is "gameness." Truancy and delinquency are clearly involved. Among the 1313 gangs 530 were definitely delinquent, another 100 probably so. Among 28 confirmed truants only one was not in some gang. Over 50% of delinquents are arraigned in group charges. Of 100 boys in corrective institutions 95% were gang members. Recidivism is common, only about 50% of juvenile court cases being first appearance. Larceny, burglary and robbery made up 68% of offenses charged in juvenile court. The author estimates about 1/10 of Chicago's boys 10-20 years of age in gangs of doubtful value. Links with bootlegging and corrupt politics are illustrated. Cases in which club programs have made over gangs are suggested.

431. THURSTONE, L. L., Equally Often Noticed Differences. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1927, 18, 289-293.

The Cattell-Fullerton theorem that equally often noticed differences are equal is shown to be true only in case the variation within each sample is equal to that of each other sample.

432. THURSTONE, L. L., The Method of Paired Comparisons for Social Values. *Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology*, January 1927, 384.

266 students judged 19 crimes with regard to seriousness and built a scale, using a careful statistical technique. The most serious crimes were rape, homicide, seduction, and abortion. The least serious were libel, smuggling, bootlegging, receiving stolen goods, and vagrancy.

433. TODD, W. H., What Citizens Know about their Schools. *Teachers College Contributions to Education*, 1927, No. 279.

An investigation of what 6,000 citizens in 17 cities know about their school systems, indicated that they know about 50% concerning superintendents, boards, etc., of what is believed necessary for reasonably intelligent consideration of public school affairs.

434. TOOPS, H. A., Statistical Checks on the Accuracy of Intercorrelation Computations. *Educational Research Bulletin*, 1926, 6, 385-391.

Charts for checking step by step the computation of intercorrelation.

435. TOOPS, H. A., The Conception of Two or More Arbitrary Origins and its Application to the Solution of Standard Deviations. *Educational Research Bulletin*, 1927, 6, 372-375.

A way of simplifying the calculation of the S. D. by using two origins and thus reducing the size of the step variations.

436. TOOPS, H. A. & EDGERTON, H. A., An Abac for Determining the Probable Correlation over a Larger Range Knowing it over a Shorter One. *Journal of Educational Research*, 1927, 16, 382-385.

Here's how.

437. TOPPEN, H., Neure Beobachtungen über die Psychologie der zu lebenslänglicher Zuchthausstrafe verurteilten oder begnadigten verbrecher (Recent observations on the psychology of criminals sentenced to life imprisonment or pardoned). *Leipzig and Vienna; Franz Deuticke*, 1927.

An exhaustive study of 56 cases of criminals sentenced to life imprisonment.

438. TOWNSEND, MARION E., The Function and Organization of Educational Research Bureaus. *American School Board Journal*, November 1927, 37.

Replies to questionnaires from 69 cities indicate a typical bureau for cities under 100,000 has a director (salary averaging \$4150), an assistant, and clerical help. Duties include testing, advising school officers, instructing teachers, and disposition of subnormal pupils. In larger cities a psychologist and additional associates are found.

439. TROW, WILLIAM CLARK, The Comparative Value of Recall and Repetition in the Learning of Rote and Meaningful Material. *Psychological Bulletin*, 1927, 24, 160.

Five groups of two subjects each were given digits, words, and a paragraph for recall. The results suggest that some practice in recall is important in securing good performance for later trials. Abstract words were about equal to concrete in immediate recall, but after one

day, had been forgotten about as much as concrete words were in 15 weeks.

440. TROW, WILLIAM CLARK, The Leisure Activities of Students and their Instructors. *Pedagogical Seminary*, 1927, 34, 406-414.

A questionnaire study of 50 high school students, 34 high school teachers, 183 graduate students, and 68 university teachers suggests that large numbers of those who are or who will be teachers in school or college have little or no interest in art or appreciation of such things as physical exercise, literature, music, art, and religion. Humanistic students were no better than scientific students.

441. TRYON, R. M., Standard and New-Type Tests in the Social Studies. *Historical Outlook*, April 1927, 172.

Lists and samples of tests published in this field since 1915, with the usual arguments for new-type tests.

442. TSAI, L. S., The Relation of Retention to the Distribution of Relearning. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 1927, 10, 30-39.

Two experiments in disagreement on the desirability of relearning material frequently at first and at longer intervals later. In one experiment better results were achieved by relearning seldom at first and more frequently later. Uniform intervals were less efficient in both experiments.

443. TURNEY, AUSTIN H., A Study of Achieving and Non-achieving High School Pupils. *School Review*, April 1927, 289-298.

A study of 24 "achievers" (earning better marks than intelligence would suggest) and 21 "non-achievers" (earning poorer marks than intelligence would justify) in the University of Minnesota high school. Of the pupils above the mean in I. Q. 3 were achievers, 15 non-achievers. Of pupils over age, 21 were achievers, 7 non-achievers. Ratings on accuracy (.71), common sense (.68), ambition (.68), and industry (.61) showed a high correlation with achievement; ratings on health (.26), respect for authority (.25), and personal charm (.21) seem to show little relationship.

444. UHRBROCK, RICHARD S. & DOWNEY, JUNE E., A Non-Verbal Will-Temperament Test. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, April 1927, 95.

Self-correlation for non-verbal tests based upon repetition after 24 hours for 90 junior high school boys varied from .08 for eye-hand co-ordination to .82 for ability to hold back. Self-correlation varied from .21 for ratio of speed to natural writing, to .85 for expansiveness. Combined scores on the 8 best tests would give a self-correlation of .70. Corre-

lation between verbal and non-verbal tests varied from .02 to .53, but are for the most part under .40. Obviously, the verbal and non-verbal forms do not measure the same traits.

445. USNADZE, D., Zum Problem der Relationserfassung beim Tier (The Apprehension of Relations by the Animal.) *Arch. f. d. ges. Psychologie*, 1927, 60, 361-390.

A dog trained to respond to the louder of two tones of the same pitch proved able to discriminate about 71% of the stimuli at other levels of absolute intensity at other pitches, and with other types of sound, e. g., an electric bell. When the interval between tones was increased from $\frac{1}{2}$ second to $\frac{3}{4}$ second it was found practically impossible to build the conditioned reflex.

446. VALENTINER, T., Arbeitspsychologische Feststellungen bei Kindern und Jugendlichen (studies in work conditions among children and youths). *Zsch. f. angew. Psychologie*, 1927, 29, 337-374.

Studies of a thousand apprentices showed that observation of an apprentice's behavior while actually carrying out an operation gave better prediction of future competence than did rating of the product. Studies in the schoolroom showed that pupils following gymnasium or other active sessions are hyperactive during the next class.

447. VAN ORMER, E. V., An Analysis of the Religious Attitudes of a Group of Protestant College Students. *M. A. Columbia*, 1927.

A survey of opinions, using true-false and multiple-choice tests in a college with a very religious atmosphere, including compulsory chapel, Sunday school and church attendance. 98% of group agree to "Often I feel my own weakness and look toward God as a higher power," even though 50% of the group are not church members. 98%—"There must be some power which started the world, and I think it was God." 76%—"My present religious beliefs are the same as those of the denomination in which I was brought up as a child." 95%—"At times I have a great welling up in me of sentiment or emotion for the Divine." 73% believe that the question of a future life is of urgent importance to their mental comfort. No sex differences appear. Sophomores seemed most religious. The nature element was important throughout. Emotional attitudes seem to decrease in the upper classes. Denominational distinctions appear generally unimportant.

448. VAN WAGENEN, M. J., Data on College Freshmen's Range of Information in Social Sciences. *School Review*, January 1927, 32.

A study of 800 freshmen at the University of Minnesota showed those of average intelligence corresponding in history knowledge to the average 7th or 8th grade pupil; in geography knowledge they corresponded to the norm for 6th or 7th grade pupils. Men always did better than women.

449. VAN WAGENEN, M. J., Grade Placement vs. Mental Age as a Factor in School Achievement. *27th Yearbook Nat'l. Soc. Stud. Education*, 1927, Part II.

There is the same difference between the educational test achievement of pupils in the same grade who differ by two years in mental age, that there is between pupils of the same mental age, some of whom are in the 6th grade while others are in the 8th grade.

450. VARIOT, M. G., Sur les Facteurs normaux et morbides qui peuvent avancer ou retarder le debut de la marche bipede chez les jeunes enfants (Normal and pathological factors which may hasten or retard walking in young children). *Bull. et Mem. Societe Médicale des Hôpitaux de Paris, Series 51 (1)*, 1927, 43, 353-361.

Age, sex, weight at birth, weekly increase in weight and height, methods of feeding, dentition, and date of walking have been studied in 490 cases. 67% walked at the age of 11-14 months. At this time height was 28 to 30 inches, weight 20 to 22 pounds. Rate of growth seems to be a function of the family. Children whose weight at birth is less than 2 kilograms are habitually retarded in walking. Those who begin to walk at 11 to 14 months include 83% of the breast-fed children, 69% of those both breast and bottle-fed, and only 61% of the bottle-fed. Most children had 6 to 8 teeth when they began to walk.

451. VEITH, G. J., Training the Idiot and Imbecile. *Proc. American Ass'n. Stud. Feeble-minded*, 1927, 32.

Industrial classes for 139 idiot and imbecile girls, while not affecting the I. Q., resulted in distinct improvement in % of the cases.

452. VINCENT, S., Current Views on "Internal Secretions." *Physiological Review*, 1927, 7, 288-319.

A review of recent literature. Bibliography of 99 titles.

453. Vogler, P., Beitrag zur Alkoholstatistik in Tirol 1904-1926 (Contribution to statistics concerning alcohol in the Tyrol). *Zsch. f. d. ges. Neur. und. Psychiat.*, 1927, III, 661-682.

Alcoholism in Central Europe seems to have been following a curve much like that in the United States. There was a great reduction during the war, then an uninterrupted rise sur-

passing the pre-war level, with increase in the percent of women drinking.

454. WADDELL, CHARLES W., Prognostic Value of Army Alpha Scores for Success in Practice Teaching. *Educational Administration & Supervision*, December 1927, 577.

Teachers' college students at the University of California make somewhat lower scores than do students entering letters and science. No native-born student with an entering score of less than 80 on Army Alpha received an A. B. Low intelligence students are more apt to drop out, but once entered upon practice teaching, intelligence does not appear greatly to influence success.

455. WALLIN, J. E. W., A Further Note on Scattering in the Binet Scale. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1927, 11, 143-154.

Data from Binet records of 34 psychotics, 333 epileptics, and 2206 clinical cases show only a normal scattering, in contrast to the former assumption that the abnormal gave more widely scattered test performance.

456. WAPLES, DOUGLAS, A Definition of Teaching Problems (Methods in College Instruction). *Educational Administration & Supervision*, September 1927, 391.

A study suggestive in method. Twelve graduate students interviewed 85 university teachers, collecting 421 specific problems of 54 types, which were then ranked for frequency and importance. A study at the University of Chicago brought out 77 activities, such as "lecturing by the instructor," "incidental talks by instructor," "discussion by students," etc. Major difficulties varied from one department to another.

457. WARNER, L. H., A Study of Sex Behavior in the White Rat by Means of the Obstruction Method. *Comparative Psychology Monographs*, 1927, 4, No. 22, pp. 58.

Studies of eight groups of 20 animals each show sex activity in the female dependent primarily upon internal stimulation and closely correlated with the histological character of the vaginal secretion. In the male, given a period of recovery since the previous mating, external stimuli were more significant. The females showed a slightly greater willingness than did the males, to cross an electrical obstruction in order to mate.

458. WASHBURN, M. F., Review of Literature on Feeling and Emotion. *Psychological Bulletin*, October 1927, 573.

81 titles are reviewed, covering: Pleasantness-unpleasantness; Effect of emotion; General emotivity; Desire; Certain emotional

states; Suggestions on technique; Conditioning of emotions; and emotion and disease.

459. WASHBURN, M. F., KEPLER, H., McBROOM, N., PRITCHARD, W., & REIMER, I., The Moore Tests of Radical and Conservative Temperaments. *American Journal of Psychology*, 1927, 38, 449-452.

Radical and conservative college women do not differ in certain simple psychological tests as do the college men reported by Moore.

460. WASHBURN, CARLETON, Measuring Consistency. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, December 1927, 612.

Consistency may be expressed quantitatively in percentage terms. If a child has six opportunities to get an element right or wrong (e. g., capitalization of certain words), and gets all of them right, he may be said to be 100% consistent. If he gets it right three times and wrong three times his consistency is zero.

461. WASHBURN, CARLETON & RATHS, LOUIS EDWARD, The High School Achievement of Children Trained under the Individual Technique. *Elementary School Journal*, November 1927, 214-224.

Pupils from the Winnetka public schools attended a traditional high school along with children from other villages. Pupils having passed through the Winnetka plan equal or excel in high school marks the other high school pupils in all subjects except typewriting, penmanship, and drawing. In all types (10) of extra-curricular activity Winnetka equals or excels its quota. In the scholastic honor society Winnetka pupils have almost double their quota. In school offices (7 types) Winnetka excels its quota in all except the departmental clubs. In athletics the enrollment is almost double the quota.

462. WASHBURN, JOHN NOBLE, An Experimental Study of Various Graphic, Tabular, and Textual Methods of Presenting Quantitative Material. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, September 1927, 18, 361; October 1927, 465.

An account of an unfamiliar epoch in economic history (Florence) was presented to several thousand junior high school pupils. The paragraph containing quantitative data was varied in form, the data being constant. Each form was presented to more than 200 pupils. Questions later tested mastery. In general, the results showed that the simpler the visual pattern, and the fewer the data, the more specific the recall; round numbers (numerals) are more favorable to the recall of specific amounts than are detailed numerals and written numbers; increase in the number of data presented in a graph does not affect unfavorably the recall of static and dynamic comparisons, but does affect unfavorably the recall of specific amounts; the paragraph is in general

the form which is least favorable to the recall of quantitative data, whether general or specific; the bar-graph is the form most favorable to the recall of relative amounts when the comparisons called for involve a fair degree of difficulty; the line graph is the form most favorable to the recall of the relative increase, decrease, and fluctuation (dynamic comparisons); the statistical table is the form most favorable to the recall of specific amounts; questions following a form increase the effectiveness of the form, especially in regard to the recall of those data which the questions concern; there is no correlation between the recall of numerical and non-numerical facts.

463. WATSON, GOODWIN B., A Supplementary Review of Measures of Personality Traits. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1927, 18, 73.

This review covers 90 studies up to January 1st, 1926. It is not so complete as the Harts-horne-May review.

464. WATSON, GOODWIN B., Character Tests of 1926. *Vocational Guidance Magazine*, 1927, vol. 5, No. 7.

A summary of 167 articles or books appearing during 1926. This study covers ratings, tests of social attitudes and information, moral attitudes and information, extraversion-introversion, applications of previously standardized character tests, studies of interest, case studies, questionnaires, studies of physiological indications of personality, and various conduct tests. The 1926 summary was really the forerunner of the more extensive study of 1927 literature contained in this monograph.

465. WATSON, GOODWIN B., Orient and Occident: an Opinion Study. *Published by The Inquiry*, 129 E. 62nd St., New York City.

A study of about 3,000 tests of opinion on relations between the United States and other nations bordering on the Pacific. It included a wide variety of social groups. In general the attitude seemed distinctly favorable to friendly relationships. In California labor unions, for example, 31% reacted to the term "Japanese" by the phrase "alert and progressive," whereas only 11% chose a disparaging suggestion. Some of the test questions measured information; correlation between being well-informed and being favorably disposed toward Japan was .82; between being well-informed and favorably disposed to Chinese nationalism, .70; between being well-informed and favorably disposed toward missionary enterprises, —.19. Analysis of the groupings indicated that geographic factors were not so important as had been supposed. Students in Ohio were more like students in California than they were like labor unions in Ohio. In general, economic status was more important than geographic location. Having friends among Orientals seemed

to increase probability of a favorable attitude, but the effect of travel appeared to be uncertain. Correlation between liking chow mein and favoring the abolition of extra-territoriality in China was .67, suggesting the importance of irrational factors in group attitudes. Correlation between the number of magazines read and a favorable attitude toward Chinese nationalism or the Soviet was .79. By taking into account not only number but kind of magazines, the net attitude of individuals could be predicted to an extent indicated by a multiple correlation of .83.

466. WEBB, PAUL E., A Study of Geometric Abilities among Boys and Girls of Equal Mental Abilities. *Journal of Educational Research*, April 1927, 256.

Results from 624 boys and 506 girls from five California high schools, given Webb Geometry Tests Form A & B, and the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability, showed statistically significant superiority for boys in geometry over girls of the same intellectual level. The superiority was especially marked at the lower mental ages, and disappeared at the highest mental age levels.

467. WERTHEIMER, F. I. & HESKETH, F. E., Observations and Remarks on the Physical Constitution of Female Psychiatric Patients. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 1927, 6, 499-506.

Pyknic types have a low value for the index:

$$\frac{\text{leg length}}{\text{transverse chest diameter} \times \text{sagittal chest diameter} \times \text{trunk height}} \times 100$$

Among five schizophrenic patients no pyknic form occurred. Among six manic depressives no dysplastic form was found.

468. WESTENBERGER, E. J., A Study of the Influence of Physical Defects upon Intelligence and Achievement. *Cath. Univ. Amer. Educ. Res. Bulletin*, 1927, 2, No. 9, pp. 53.

404 children in grades 2 to 8 were given Otis Intelligence and Stanford Achievement tests in January, June, and the following September. Based upon physical examinations, no statistically reliable difference was found in C. A., M. A., I. Q., E. A., or E. Q., between children not in need of medical attention, children suffering from minor defects, and children in need of immediate attention. Those of the latter two groups given treatment showed no reliable improvement.

469. WHEELER, E., Backwardness in Arithmetic. *Rep. British Assn. for the Advancement of Science*, 1927, 372.

Selection of pupils backward in arithmetic in 16 elementary schools indicates temperamental defects or emotional instability more frequent than causal factors in the general en-

vironment, school conditions, intellectual disabilities, or physical defects.

470. WHIPPLE, GUY M., Sex Differences in Intelligence Test Scores in the Elementary School. *Journal of Educational Research*, 1927, 15, 111-117.

National Intelligence Test scores given to 1071 boys and 1127 girls showed a median score for girls slightly higher than that for boys, amounting to an average difference of about 7 months. Similar results were obtained from the Illinois Test given to 2,500 pupils.

471. WHIPPLE, GUY M., The Improvement of Educational Research. *School & Society*, August 2, 1927, 249-259.

A discussion article pointing out such errors as (1) ignorance of work of predecessors; (2) futile problems; (3) lack of direct, simple observation; (4) lack of preliminary trials; (5) careless questionnaires; (6) arithmetical inaccuracy; (7) omission of reliability figures; (8) disproportion of the number of cases to the probable error; (9) misinterpretation of statistical relationships; (10) neglect of qualitative investigation which could interpret statistical results; (11) careless and inartistic presentation of results.

472. WHIPPLE, GUY M., The Transfer of Training. *27th Yearbook Natl. Society for the Study of Education*, 1927, II, 179-209.

A summary of studies on the transfer of training. Very few experimental studies have definitely yielded the verdict of "no transfer."

473. WHITACRE, JESSIE, & BLUNT, KATHARINE, Coefficient of Digestibility and Dynamic Action of a Simple Diet in Contrasted Types of Individuals. *Journal of Home Economics*, January 1927, 20.

Seven experiments of 6 days each were conducted upon five healthy adults, three of them being vivacious, quick, excitable, and two of them placid, phlegmatic, calm. No metabolic changes seem characteristic of either type.

474. WHITE, B. F., The Effect of Supervised Study in Kansas High Schools on Success in the University of Kansas. *School Review*, January 1927, 35-55.

250 students from Class A high schools having supervised study were selected for comparison with 250 from Class A high schools not having a period of 60 or more minutes each session used for teacher-guided study and discussion. The elimination of those over 21 or under 17 and who could not be paired with others on the basis of sex, M. A. and C. A., left 135 cases in each group. They came from towns and high schools of similar size. The mean university grade of pupils having supervised study was 2.98, those from other schools 2.89. Statistically the difference was only

about the size of its P. E. and hence unreliable. If fifteen points were carried each semester the difference between the groups would be slightly less than the effect of a B instead of a C in one two-point course during one semester, all other grades being the same for the year.

475. WHITE, R. C., The Human Pairing Season in America. *American Journal of Sociology*, 1927, 32, 800-805.

The even distribution of conceptions throughout the year is rather striking. No variation from month to month exceeds 1.4% of the total. Moderate temperatures are apparently more favorable, extreme heat and cold being associated with slightly lower conception rates.

476. WILBUR, H., An Experiment in the Use of Visual Methods of Instruction. *Journal of Educational Methods*, 1927, 83-87.

Best scores on facts and applications in seventh grade geography were made by the one of three parallel groups which used stereographs, slides, post cards, pictures brought in by pupils and teacher.

477. WILDEMUTH, H., Geschwisterpsychosen (Sibling psychoses). *Zsch. f. d. ges. Neur. und Psychiatry*, 1927, 110, 60-80.

A study of 8 families including 47 children, 22 of whom developed psychoses. In these cases the similarity of the type of abnormality which developed is as marked as the physical similarities of siblings.

478. WILLIAMS, HERBERT D., Truancy and Delinquency. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, August 1927.

Truancy in the Chicago public schools seems to be almost entirely a boy problem. A study in Toledo showed a truancy element in later delinquency in 40% of the cases. The most frequent age of truancy in 1918 was 12 or 13; in 1920 the most frequent age became 14; in 1922 it was 15, and in 1924, 16.

479. WILLIAMS, L. A., A Curriculum Study of Ideals Among Junior High School Pupils. *Journal of Educational Research*, April 1927, 263.

441 pupils in a California junior high school were asked to list 25 good leaders. The average pupil could list only 16, very few of the leaders being women. 22% were political leaders, 14% were military leaders, 10% were inventors. Discoverers, moral and church leaders came next, each comprising 6% of the choices. Little sex difference appeared. Movie stars were seldom mentioned.

480. WILLIER, B. H., The Specificity of Sex, of Organizations and of Differentiation of Embryonic Chick Gonads as shown

by Grafting Experiments. *Journal of Experimental Zoology*, 1927, 46, 409-466.

Four day embryos have a fixed character resulting in ovarian or testicular development regardless of the sex of the host into which they may be transplanted.

481. WILLOUGHBY, RAYMOND R., Genetic Conditions for the Rise of Genius. *Pedagogical Seminary*, December 1927, 583.

A statement based upon theoretical statistical analysis of six probabilities of relationships which must be known in order to predict the type of population most likely to produce genius.

482. WILLOUGHBY, RAYMOND R. & GOODRIE, MIRANDA, Neglected Factors in the Differential Birth-rate Problem. *Pedagogical Seminary*, September 1927, 373.

A laboratory statistical experiment in matching populations in order to give much the same correlations between the intelligence of mates and between intelligence and fecundity as obtain throughout the general population. The statistical study demonstrates the possibility of a rising mean of intelligence in spite of the fact that there are more children in dull families, if the tendency for persons of like intelligence to marry is not too pronounced.

483. WILSON, F. T., Learning of Bright and Dull Children. *Teachers College Contributions to Education*, No. 292, 1927.

Investigation of 15 dull 9-year-olds, 15 bright 9-year-olds, 15 dull 12-year-olds, and 15 bright 12-year-olds at seven simple learning tasks, showed no clear relationship between score on intelligence tests and ability to learn as a general factor. Brighter children did better work on multiplication problems, discovering the underlying principle of a game, reproducing a description read by another; whereas supposedly dull children made greater progress in learning mirror drawing and placing form board blocks when blindfolded.

484. WILSON, M. O., Interests of College Students. *American Journal of Psychology*, 1927, 38, 409-417.

Correlation between number of courses taken in a department and the average scholarship score indicates that the student does his best work in the department in which he takes the largest number of courses, and also that those subjects chosen as electives are apt to call forth higher scholarship. 758 students in the Arts College of the University of Chicago furnished data for this study, all of them having done all four years in residence. They showed a tendency to do better work in the department in which they had the largest number of courses (correlation .34). The highest scholarship grades were obtained by students of ancient languages, modern languages, bio-

logical sciences, and mathematics. Students majoring in science had a wider range of interests than students majoring in the humanities. Social science students had a diversity of interest almost equal to the students of the classics, but showed a lower scholarship in all departments, including their own.

485. WINCH, W. H., Print-script and Cursive-script in Schools: an Investigation in nervo-muscular readjustments. *Forum of Education*, 1926, 3, 206-222.

Pupils asked to change their style of writing from cursive to manuscript or vice-versa took more than three years of practice to attain in the new style the efficiency formerly developed in the old.

486. WINSOR, A. LEON, The Relative Variability of Boys and Girls. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, May 1927, 18, 327-336.

A summary of studies in both anatomical and mental measurements indicates a practically negligible difference in variation where a large population has been tested. Analyzing the scores of 2,000 ten-year-old boys and girls in two of the more reliable sub-tests of the Army Beta, the boys were slightly more variable in Test 2 and the girls more variable in Test 5, if the S. D. were used as the method of measure; whereas when the Pearson coefficient of variation was used the reverse was true. Among the experimental studies summarized are those of Montague and Hollingworth on anatomical measurements of 2,000 newly born babies; Henmon & Livingston on the height of 88,000 individuals; Touton on geometrical ability as revealed by the Regents' examinations of 1,000 students; Whitmire's study of the National Intelligence scores of 1,300 children, and Frazier's study of grade location of 62,000 boys and girls.

487. WOODROW, HERBERT, Effect of Type of Training upon Transference. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, March 1927, 159-172.

Students were divided into a practice group of 34 subjects, a training group of 42 subjects, and a control group of 106 university sophomores. All groups took six memory tests at the beginning and end of a month. The practice group and training group were given exercises in two of the six forms of memorizing; for the practice group this was routine repetition, for the training group instruction was given in the technique of memorizing. Difference between the practice and control groups was negligible. The group given training in the mystery of techniques and processes showed decidedly greater improvement in every test. The practice group may be said to show an improvement beyond the control group amounting to 5%, whereas the training group

showed an improvement of 36%. Differences between the training group and practice group are 5 or more times the probable error of the difference in every case.

488. WOODROW, HERBERT & BEMMELS, VIOLET, Overstatement as a Test of General Character in Pre-school Children. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1927, 18, 239-246.

A test given to 17 five-year-old and 14 four-year-old children asked "Can you hop on one foot?" "Can you lace your shoes alone?" "Can you tell time?" etc. The children were then tested. Only one child understated his ability. Correlations between overstatement and teachers' rating for general character were .69 and .74. Combining rating and test, the correlation with mental age and goodness was .56 in one group and .43 in another. Correlation between ratings and test with intelligence constant was .40.

489. WOODS, F. A., Survival of Ability. *Science*, 1927, 66.

Among Harvard graduates 25 years out of college, recognition in "Who's Who in America" is most frequent among those with three children, less so for those with one or two children, and least for those unmarried.

490. WOOLLEY, HELEN T., CAMERON, HECTOR C., SMITH, THEODATE L., BRIDGES, K. M. B., Causes and Management of Contrariness: Negativism—based on the minutes of a child study group. *Child Study*, 1927, 4, 9-10.

A symposium. Resistance is normal in children 3 to 4 years old.

491. WORCESTER, D. A., Attempts to Adjust a College Course to Individual Differences. *Research Adventures in University Teaching*, Pressey; Public School Pub. Co., 1927.

Adjustments of the reading requirements of the course in accord with the abilities shown on the preliminary examination.

492. WORCESTER, D. A., Child Accounting in Higher Education. *Ibid.*, p. 36.

A report of 284 college students illustrating a wide spread in previous scholastic and teaching experience.

493. WORCESTER, D. A., Minor Studies Bearing upon College Curriculum Problems. *Ibid.*

Wide variation in courses in education and content of text books, technical vocabulary required, and professional information with which teachers emerge.

494. WORCESTER, D. A., Profit and Loss in Education. *Ibid.*, p. 49.

Students at the end of the term showed a loss on more than half as many questions as showed gain.

495. WORCESTER, D. A., Tautologous Teaching in Higher Education. *Ibid.*

Pupils entering a course in educational psychology know many of the items involved in the final examination given at the close.

496. WYLIE, ANDREW TENNANT, To What Extent May We Rely Upon the Answers to a School Questionnaire? *Journal of Educational Method, February 1927*, 252-257.

A case worker followed up 29 cases on twelve items answered by public school children 11 and 12 years old. The degree of accuracy for questionnaire answers appears as follows:

"Did your mother attend high school?" 93% correct.

"About how many books are there in the home?" 76% (agreement of within 25 volumes).

"Is there a telephone in the house?" 93% correct.

"Does the family have an auto other than a truck?" 83% correct.

"Is there a bathtub in the home?" 83% correct.

"Does the mother go out to work regularly?" 92% correct.

"In what country was the father born?" 100% correct.

"In what country was the mother born?" 89% correct.

"What language does the mother speak at home most of the time?" 77% correct.

"How many rooms in the home?" 69%, with a "practical agreement" of 94%.

497. YEPSEN, L. N., The Reliability of Self-scored Measures. *School & Society, 1927*, 26, 657-660.

About 25% of a class of 53 students in a teachers' college cheated in correcting their own test papers.

498. YOUNG, D., Some Effects of a Course in American Race Problems on the Race Prejudice of 450 Undergraduates of the University of Pennsylvania. *Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology, 1927*, 22, 235-242.

A questionnaire given at the beginning and end of a course in racial sociology showed that it is easy to get agreement upon principles of brotherhood and equality, but that these do not carry over into personal relations.

499. YOUNG, J. BATEMAN, How Emotional Traits Predispose to College Failure.

Journal of Educational Psychology, 1927, 18, 631-636.

Of freshmen entering Colgate over a period of three years, 42% of the failures were above the campus average in intelligence. Sophomore failures showed, in the one class studied, that 64% of students leaving because of poor scholarship were actually above the college average in intelligence. Application of two Colgate mental hygiene tests showed a tendency for few failures (less than 50% of quota) among intelligent introverts and many failures (more than 200% of quota) among those extraverts showing few psychoneurotic symptoms.

500. YOUNG, KIMBALL, Personality Studies. *American Journal of Sociology, 1927*, 32, 953-971.

A summary of current literature upon personality studies. Bibliography of 189 titles.

501. YOUNG, KIMBALL, Review of Field of Social Psychology, 1927. *Psychological Bulletin, 1927*, 24, 661.

The author outlines the general subdivisions of the field and discusses problems of definition of task and of method.

502. ZALUZHNI, A. S., Charakter Vsaemovidnoshene u ditey pereddoshkilnogo viku (The character of the interaction between children of preschool age). *Ukrainski vestnik eksperimentalnoe pedagogiki i refleksologii, 1927*, No. 2 (5).

Observation of 22 children ages one to four showed decrease in negativism and aggressiveness with age, but increase in social conduct and collective behavior.

503. ZIMMERMAN, C., The Migration to Towns and Cities, I. *American Journal of Sociology, 1927*, 32, 470.

Data from 357 farm families of Minnesota, taken at random in groups of 50 from seven representative areas. The migration of females to the city in the third generation is distinctly higher than that of males. 10.1% of the migrants are in the professions, including nursing; 2.6% are in business as owners. The migration tends to be toward the larger cities, and the great majority travel only a short distance. Migration takes place between the ages of 18 and 25, and moves by successive stages to the large industrial cities. There is less tendency toward marriage among the migrants than among those who stay on farms.

504. ZIMMERMAN, C., The Migration to Towns and Cities, II. *American Journal of Sociology, 1927*, 33, 105-109.

A study of 694 farm families from 13 communities in Minnesota shows 57% with income below \$2,600; the group with incomes under \$1,400 had 23% of the children studied, but furnished 31% of all urban migrants, and

40% of the migrants to large cities. The group with incomes of \$5,000 or more had 11% of the children 18 years of age or older, but furnished only 4% of the urban migrants, and 1% of the migrants to large cities.

505. ZYVE, C. T., Conservation among Children. *Teachers College Record*, 1927, 29, 48-61.

A study of the development of conversation in a self-directed group of third grade children. In three months time the percent of conversation dealing with class management and control decreased from 11% to 5%. The largest amount of time (20% to 35%) was spent on play activities at home. Minor personal concerns dropped from 4% to 1%. Loquacious children came to talk less, unexpressive children to talk more.

506. ZYVE, L. D., A Test of Scientific Aptitude. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, November 1927, 525.

An aptitude test was devised to test the following elements: 1. Clarity of definition—the ability of the student to differentiate better definitions from poorer ones, and appreciate

their relative value; 2. Suspended vs. snap judgment—the tendency of the student to draw final conclusions from insufficient data; 3. Experimental bent —; 4. Discrimination of values in selecting and arranging experimental data; 5. Detection of fallacies and contradictions; 6. Reasoning—the ability to reason not only according to well-established rules, but also so far as possible original reasoning; 7. Accuracy of systematic observations; 8. Induction, deduction, and generalization—the ability of the student to use given experimental data and form correct inductions, deductions, and generalizations; 9. Accuracy of understanding and interpretation—ability to grasp the true meaning of a given body of information and to interpret it correctly; 10. Caution—the tendency of the student to pause to investigate before adopting a mode of behavior. Scores were weighted, using research students in physics, chemistry, and electrical engineering as a criterion group. Correlations with ratings averaged .74. Correlation with Thorndike Test after correction for attenuation, .58. Validity was set at .82, reliability at .93. Correlation with scholarship in non-scientific departments was .02.

CHARACTER EDUCATION IN THE SUMMER CAMP

*Report of Institute Held at Y. M. C. A. College, Chicago,
April 4-7, 1930*

By

HEDLEY S. DIMOCK,
CHARLES E. HENDRY,
RUTH PERKINS,
ROY SORENSON

THE RELIGIOUS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

MONOGRAPH No. 5

JUNE, 1930

The Religious Education Association

What It Is and Does

The Religious Education Association was organized in 1903. It grew out of the Council of Seventy, an organization of the most distinguished biblical scholars of that day, who recognized that education was drifting away from a religious basis, and that religion was but imperfectly using the educational approach.

These scholars desired to bring into one inclusive fellowship the outstanding leaders in every field of social action, schools, homes, libraries, churches, universities, associations, in order that together they might face their common religious educational task.

The young Association very quickly captured the imagination of the keenest educational and religious leaders of the United States and Canada, and drew them into its membership. Its usefulness has been proved through more than a quarter of a century.

But its real strength has been found not in its formal leadership but in the large number of persons from all walks of life whom it has drawn together in pursuit of the ideal which it has set itself. Its membership makes possible a much more inclusive fellowship than can be found in the existing denominational or interdenominational agencies.

Among the means which the Association has used for the accomplishment of its purpose are the following:

1. It brings together for conference and in conventions, national and regional, those who are interested in the field of moral and religious education, without distinction of creed or race, for the purpose of sharing their common experience and defining their common task.
2. It publishes the *Journal Religious Education*, where reports are made to the members and to the general public of the progress which is being made in the field of moral and religious education and through which workers in this field may exchange opinion as to experiences, projects, and interpretations.
3. It publishes carefully prepared monographs on pertinent problems.
4. It calls attention to new and unsolved problems in the field and seeks to promote their solution:
 - a. By inducing some existing research agency to undertake their study.
 - b. By bringing about the organization of a new group for this purpose.
5. It seeks, through an Annual Research Conference, to integrate the efforts of such specialized sciences as psychology, sociology and psychiatry in a common attack on problems of religious and character development.

Send for special folder.

HEADQUARTERS

59 E. Van Buren Street, Chicago, Ill.

CHARACTER EDUCATION IN THE SUMMER CAMP

Report of Institute Held at Y. M. C. A. College, Chicago,

April 4-7, 1930

By

HEDLEY S. DIMOCK, *Y. M. C. A. College, Chicago*

CHARLES E. HENDRY, *Y. M. C. A., Kenosha*

RUTH PERKINS, *National Board of the Y. W. C. A.'s*

ROY SORENSON, *National Council Y. M. C. A.*

Religious Education Monograph

Number 5

THE RELIGIOUS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
JUNE, 1930

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Foreword

The Monograph Series of the Religious Education Association is used to present studies that are more significant than articles, both from the standpoint of length and of preparation. The materials which came out of the Institute held at the Y. M. C. A. College, Chicago, on *Character Education in the Summer Camp* ordinarily might have formed the bulk of a regular issue of the Journal. The June issue, however, was devoted to the Cleveland Convention materials. Since the materials of the Camp Institute seemed too timely to hold until fall for publication it seemed wise to print in this special way because of the value and significance of the Monograph.

The material here presented is very significant for all interested in using camping as a character developing agency. It is equally suggestive to leaders in any other agency which is attempting to use its program as a character education scheme.

SOME FACTS ABOUT THE INSTITUTE

1. The Institute on *Character Education in the Summer Camp* is unique in camping history, particularly in the fact that, exclusive of everything else, the entire four days were devoted to the character training aspects of the camping enterprise.

2. The Institute came as a result of requests from camp directors that the Y. M. C. A. College provide resources that would help camps secure character results. Interest in the character aspects of camping is indicated in the fact that 115 persons attended, representing fifteen states from Massachusetts to California.

3. Various types of camps were represented at the Institute: Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, private, Settlement, Welfare, Y. W. and Y. M. C. A.

4. The faculty members were recognized leaders with significant experience in using the camp in a character education project.

The importance of these materials for character education generally is high. Perhaps no agency has developed more thoroughly its educational philosophy, processes and methods than the summer camp. The very best of camping experience is reflected in this monograph.

J. M. ARTMAN

CHAPTER I

Character Objectives in the Summer Camp*

WHY AN INSTITUTE ON CHARACTER EDUCATION IN THE SUMMER CAMP

It seems eminently fitting at the beginning of our Institute to ask ourselves—"Why such a gathering as this?" A decade ago such an Institute would have been impossible. Today we have over one hundred camp directors and leaders representing the country from Boston to California gathered together to spend four days considering the educational and character aspects of camping. The meaning of our presence here can best be glimpsed in the perspective of the forces that are at work on the summer camp. Two or three answers then, to the "why" of this Institute may be given:

(1) Camp directors have always loved camping and have believed in its character developing possibilities. Camp directors always have been on the trail seeking to enlarge and to enrich these character outcomes in boys and girls. The quest for character results, then, is by no means new. We are on the same old trail but we recognize that the largest results will come with the most refined and most adequately tested methods. Our interest, then, in this Institute is in the direction of drawing on the widest possible resources for the improvement of our practices so that the best experiences possible may be had by the girls and boys for whom we are responsible.

(2) A second factor which is clearly evident is that camp directors are not isolated and dare not be isolated from the trends and happenings in the educational and social sciences. Marked advances in educational theory and practice

have come in the last decade as the result of new experiences in psychology, child guidance, mental hygiene and psychiatry, experimental education and sociology. New rays of light are being thrown on our educational processes, especially from the standpoint of how character is affected and developed. That radical changes in our schemes of education are desirable and inevitable is now a recognized fact. Perhaps the summer camp will need no such thoroughgoing transformation as other educational agencies, but it cannot possibly secure its best results without taking into account the new advances of knowledge and practice from these other fields. Alert camp directors want their campers to profit by the growing insights and knowledge which are to be found in the resources in these areas of experimental education, child study, mental hygiene and sociology. We are going to be too wise and too cautious to jump too fast. It is the best tested knowledge and experience only which we desire to utilize.

In one sense, then, we are here today to look at some of these resources and ask what they promise us for the development of the girls and boys in our camps. These resources will come to us, not directly from these different fields but in applications which already have been made, to some extent, in the summer camps represented by members of the faculty and others in this Institute.

(3) A third factor which is closely allied to the second and which probably has operated to bring many of us here is this: We know that educational agencies actually may be failing to secure the results they seek and profess to be

*Summary of opening address given by Hedley S. Dimock.

achieving. No educational or social agency can escape this possibility. We know that a person may go to school and master all knowledge and yet from the personality standpoint be warped in his emotions, twisted in his judgments and maladjusted in his social relationships. It has been discovered that there are as many personality problems in the supposedly "superior" child as in the person who has less intellectual ability. Social inadequacy is by no means limited to the moron, the delinquent, or the criminal. Our schools have been so busy teaching subjects that "personalities" have been largely, and, at times, completely ignored. We know that the church in its religious education may also miss the mark, that it may be so busy teaching doctrine, or the Bible, or Christian history that the attitudes and habits of children are overlooked and neglected. A child may know a great deal about the Bible and about Jesus, but that is no guarantee that he possesses social usefulness, effectiveness and integration. We have learned also that physical activities, whether in the Y. M. C. A., school or playground, may not achieve the desirable character results which we have assumed. Potentially they have this possibility, but we know now that the learnings which result may be negative as well as positive. We know that in basketball, football or baseball, folks may learn to be selfish, to be conceited, to lose their self-control, to give up easily, to grouch and crab, to play to the gallery, to make alibis for mistakes and deficiencies, to boast and brag, to be dishonest, or to act without discrimination. There is no guarantee either that the desirable or positive learnings will outweigh the negative.

And now Hartshorne and May in their assumption-smashing reports of the Character Education Inquiry have presented us with evidence that organizations which seek to develop certain kinds of conduct are completely failing in their

objective. If this be true of other social and educational agencies I suppose there is no reason to believe that the camp has any special magic potency which in itself, regardless of conditions, guarantees beneficial results. We know that the boys or girls in a camp may become more selfish, more dependent, more irresponsible, more seclusive, more given to temper tantrums, or more quarrelsome than when they came.

We are here, then, to consider ways by which the largest results may be achieved by our camps. We are here because we want to bring to the thousands of boys and girls who will be in our camps this summer those experiences which will not only give them joy and satisfaction but which will add in a significant way to their equipment for living. We come all of us open-mindedly and as learners. There is no camp, or at least we know of none, that has achieved perfection. The best camps that we know about are quick to acknowledge their inadequacies, and are groping after better methods and larger results. Our process here must be one of sharing experience and of evaluating the various practices that are represented by the members and the faculty of the Institute. We are not going to make shifts in our own objectives or in our own methods and practices or programs unless we see some promise of virtue in the modification.

CHARACTER OBJECTIVES

One of the very first problems which a camp director or counselor faces is around the question of his objectives. The objectives for character development will doubtless vary in the camps here represented, but each camp should know rather definitely the specific objectives it seeks. "Character" is a general term which applies to a wide range of specific attitudes and habits, many of which can be separated and which are learned in various specific ways. There are three

sources or avenues from which these specific objectives may be set up.

(1) First, there are those specific objectives which we seek in general for all of our campers. To a certain extent these may be determined even before camp opens. They suggest areas in the life of the boy or girl in which development should take place. For purpose of illustration we may say that a camp seeks to develop (a) improvement in certain skills such as swimming, diving, canoeing, handicrafts, sailing, etc.; (b) appreciation of beauty in music or in sun, lake, sky, bird, or tree; (c) more adequate emotional and social adjustments such as tolerance, poise, resourcefulness and independence, concern for the welfare of others, ability to foresee consequences of conduct, emotional emancipation and weaning from parents.

(2) A second source of objectives for a camp is the study of the various activities which enter into the life of the camp. The concept of concomitant learnings is useful here.¹ It has helped us to discern more clearly the potential learnings or character results of various activities or situations. The boy in learning to swim, for example, is also establishing many attitudes such as: to co-operate or not to co-operate, to persist or to surrender, to be honest or dishonest, to be courageous or to be a coward. A person on an overnight hike or canoe trip likewise is practicing many attitudes and habits. He is learning to be selfish or unselfish, to co-operate or not to co-operate, to persist or to surrender, to be dependent or to be independent, to be sensitive or not to be sensitive, to consider or not to consider the feelings of others, to judge with or without discrimination, to be resourceful or unresourceful, to be industrious or lazy, to be cheerful or grouchy, etc. This analysis of the possible learnings of a given activity which is to be made by camp direc-

tors, instructors and counselors has several results: (a) It sharpens our sensitiveness to the fact that an activity may have negative or undesirable learnings as well as positive or desirable results. In the very same activity or situation, depending largely on how it is handled, a boy may learn to be a coward or to display courage, to be honest or dishonest, to be prejudiced or open-minded. (b) It should enable leaders to relate the individual camper to a particular activity in the most helpful way. If a boy is timid and sensitive about his inadequacy in some capacity, let us say baseball, to relate him to a group of boys much superior to him in ability might easily result in enhancing his sense of timidity and in driving him further toward seclusiveness. A right adjustment of the particular camper to a particular situation is greatly to be desired if not absolutely necessary for wholesome personality development. (c) It also makes the leader aware of a much wider range of learnings that may happen in a given situation. Sometimes the most commonplace sort of experience or situation is charged with potential learnings. To recognize the potentialities of the situation may mean handling it in such a way that it approximates its large educational significance.

(3) The third and probably the most important source of objectives is the study and understanding of the individual camper. As this topic will be treated more fully later from this platform we will not devote much time to it now. Yet we cannot overstate the fact that the center of gravity in an educational process is the individual person. That is the place and the only place where attitudes, habits, ideals and conduct are being developed, and unless we have specific objectives in terms of the specific needs of the particular campers there is, inescapably, great wastage in our

1. Cf. *Camping and Character*, pp. 67-72; 88-93.

resources and in our efforts. The basketball coach not only has specific objectives for each player such as passing, dribbling, pivoting, jumping and shooting—he also has particular specific objectives for each player. One needs to be strengthened in shooting, another is weak in guarding, another needs more skill in dribbling or pivoting. In a similar way the character educator needs to discover his particular objectives in terms of the developing life of a boy or a girl. While one is being developed in resourcefulness, or in reflective discrimination, or in social insight, or in tolerance, or in concern for the welfare of others or in social responsibility, perhaps he may also need special attention from the standpoint of other specific attitudes or habits. He may exhibit emotional immaturity in some form or other, such as inadequate weaning from parents, temper tantrums, or refusing to accept responsibility for his failures. One of the unit courses in the Institute will devote its entire time to a consideration of how the character needs of the individual camper may be most adequately met.

When character objectives become central for a camp director and when they have been made specific in such ways as we have suggested, the entire life and all the procedures of the camp are affected. It tends to define both the kind

of program to be followed and the sort of resources which will be provided. It possesses implications for the way campers will be grouped. It has a direct bearing on the kind of motivation that will be used. It is pertinent for the way in which campers are controlled and decisions are made. It is of peculiar significance for the whole matter of leadership selection and supervision. It suggests the kinds of persons that are needed as leaders for this kind of a task. It forces us into consideration of the best methods of training and supervising these leaders. It stimulates us to ask how we may discover more accurately just what the total impact of our camp is on boys or girls.

Why this Institute? Simply because all of us are seeking richer fruits as the result of our efforts. We love camping—for many of us it is either our great devotion in life or our most stimulating and fascinating avocation. We want to scrutinize the experiences of others, taking nothing for granted, frankly appreciating different points of view and methods. In a spirit of open-mindedness, which surely characterizes persons who have come to share in the quest here represented, we seek the very best that we can discover to appropriate to the task which is ours in the summer camp.

CHAPTER II

The Principles and Methods of Program Building

Report of Group Discussion*

ITEMS LISTED FOR CONSIDERATION

Realizing that program processes include more than conducting activities, the group listed the following items as of interest for discussion:

- (a) *Grouping*. How secure group unity, cohesiveness and solidarity?
- (b) *Motivation*. How do processes in camp program influence motive?
- (c) *Interests*. How to discover and use interests of campers in program?
- (d) *Co-operative Participation and Control*. Should new rules be developed for each new group or should the same rules be imposed by administration?
- (e) *Social Controls*. What is a wise use of tradition, camp spirit, etc., in getting a desired type of behavior?
- (f) *Continuous Relationship*. What is the relation of period at camp to life throughout the year?
- (g) *Activities*. Analysis of some specific activities.
- (h) *Creating Desires for Higher Values*. How best use worship services, ceremonies, and symbols?
- (i) *Routine*. How manage new campers, dining room process, announcements, etc., so it contributes to the attainment of the camp's objectives?
- (j) *Testing and Measurement*. How can we measure our results?
- (k) *Objectives*. How can we discover and use objectives of campers, parents, counselors and director?

- (l) *Leisure Time*. How can we have a full program and still leave enough leisure time? How can we teach "leisure" and the use of leisure time?
- (m) *Supervision*. Should leadership budget be spent for activity specialists on staff, or used for group counselors?
- (n) *Old Campers and New Campers Relationship*.
- (o) *Long Term and Short Term Camp Procedure*. To what extent ought the program process differ?
- (p) *Relation of Income to Program*.
- (q) *Use of Formal Instruction in Nature Study as Contrasted with Rather Informal Project Type*.
- (r) *Handling Situations to Accomplish Character Outcomes*.
- (s) *Relations to Parents*.
- (t) *Accepting Delinquents and Those with Conspicuous Behavior Problems*. To what extent shall we take them in a camp of socially adjusted children?

CO-OPERATIVE PARTICIPATION AND CONTROL

The following questions emerged during the discussion:

Why have a camp council? We get the same results year after year.

Is it wise to let a campers' council "kid" themselves that they are really making the decisions when in reality they are not?

If campers determine the program they might or might not take the attitude that they need not participate if they don't care to.

Why shouldn't the campers feel that they might or might not participate in any activity as they see fit?

If the group expresses the desire to stay up later, go to bed earlier, have meals at other

*The materials which follow are taken from the section working on *Principles and Methods of Program Building* under the leadership of Ruth Perkins and Roy Sorenson. The sectional record was kept by Fred Lee, Y. M. C. A., Milwaukee.

hours, etc., what would you do about that?

Are there values which justify the time involved in much camper-decision making?

If the campers are allowed to choose their program, won't they select the things they have always done and leave untouched areas which might be of real interest?

Should all decisions be left to the Camp Council or are some less wise to submit to them?

Suppose a group makes a wrong decision, should we simply say we are sorry they decided that way but we cannot camp on that basis?

In response to these questions the following ideas were expressed:

Some camps have Junior Councils which make decisions controlled by the directors but it makes the Junior Council feel good because they think they had a part in it.

We have meetings of the campers in town before the camp session when we talk over many items of co-operative living, regulations, and program.

If you let campers suggest changing meal hours, retiring and rising time, etc., you will have your discipline all broken up.

If someone gets up a petition to have ice cream every day, discuss it with them and examine all the factors involved. Such things as health, expense, the possibility of getting tired of it, the fact that some campers might not like it as well as others, and other such items should be considered.

The function of leadership is important. One way is to tell a group that if they want to have a hike to go ahead and plan and run one. Another way is to break up the activity into various specific factors, suggest alternatives, and let the group select the alternative that seems to fit their desire. This would mean asking them whether they wanted a hike; where they wanted to go; what food should be planned; when to go; whether to make it a hare and hound chase, treasure hunt, or straight hike; whether to ask the nature lore director to accompany them, etc.

Democracy of decision should be at points where something can be done about it, where they have had experience that would enable them to carry out their decisions.

Leadership is exercised where the leader acts as a member of the group and takes a rôle of guidance in the group which has had no experience in making its own decisions.

Some things are set up and never need attention by the Council or decision-making body unless dissatisfactions arise when the Council should deal with them.

Some items cannot be altered by decision of the camp council. In some instances rulings about swimming at night, canoe sailing, etc., have been set by a policy-making group out of camp. Smoking by campers is forbidden in many camps. In many cases this is set by a Board of Directors or by community attitude. In some matters, such as cutting birch bark

from trees, state regulation does not permit decision by campers.

We are in the capacity of parents and custodians of the children so that in safety matters the experience and judgment of the directors should not be questioned.

Choice of leadership is very important. Leaders should have a way of making necessary decisions and handling situations which will make it apparent to the campers that their judgment on matters is to the best interests of the campers.

Campers should be told frankly when they deal with matters out of their control that they cannot make a decision about this. We should not fool them in the hope that they will decide right.

We might profitably do more work in the realm of finding out why campers want what they express a desire for.

Some cases were reported:

(1) A case was cited of a camp period which was begun on the basis that the boys were to make their own decisions. The first four days were chaos. Then the boys became bored and dissatisfied and for the rest of the ten day period they wanted to do the things they had done last year.

(2) Another case was cited of a camp of older girls, who, when they came to camp, asked that they might be allowed to conduct the program. The director fell in with the idea and let them hold meetings to think through to a conclusion. She gave them a list of the staff and their various skills. She also called the girls' attention to the fact that each staff member should be required to work only a certain number of hours. The girls decided that this was reasonable and set about developing a program that all would enjoy. After a whole day of discussing, the girls came back and said that some of the things they wanted would be an unreasonable burden on a few of the directors and that the kind of program that was offered them was as good as anything they could devise. In view of these things, they asked that the staff conduct the program. Only one change was requested—that they have a worship service at the close of each day.

(3) A case was cited of a subnormal girl in camp who was being teased by the other girls. The directors felt that it should be stopped, but they wanted to do it in such a way that the other girls would really make the decision themselves; then it dawned upon them that they were not living up to their own ideals in their treatment of their subnormal camp mate. Immediately the decision was made to stop this form of treatment. The decision was adhered to almost entirely and the first few infractions were treated with such strong disapproval by the group that it ceased altogether.

(4) Another case cited was that of a camp in which some money had been stolen. The entire circumstances were explained to the Camp Council; but after much discussion in which the

girls tried to guess who might be the guilty one, the director had to take the matter entirely into her own hands and work it out herself. The results of this attempt at group control proved to be entirely unsatisfactory.

It was pointed out that *we should be careful as to what things we refer to the Council* so as not to do violence to the personality of an individual simply in order to obtain greater learnings for the group.

(5) An instance of how campers can arrive at a conclusion was given in the example of a game that had been popular at camp, but, due to the number of casualties and the difficulty of supervision, had been omitted from the program. When the boys discovered there was to be no War Game, they were very much put out. One of the most ardent advocates of a War Game circulated a petition among the boys that they be allowed to have one. The situation was discussed among the directors and it was decided to have a meeting of all boys who were interested in a War Game. At the meeting the director suggested that they talk about it frankly and see what could be worked out. First, he asked what some of the desirable features of the game might be. Some responses such as: "You have to be brave to play it"; "It is fun"; "You learn to be observant"—were forthcoming. Then the boys were asked to give some of the reasons why the staff had ruled the game out. At first there was a tendency on the part of some of the radicals to try to repress any replies that would tend to damage their cause. The director, however, pointed out that there would be fairness on both sides and some answers started coming. "Too many get hurt"; "New campers get scared"; "You tear your clothes." From these lists an effort was made to develop a game that would have the desirable features and still do away with the undesirable features. Rules were developed by the group, the name was changed, and a practically new game was the result. The next day another meeting was held at which the game was evaluated and more modifications were added.

THE DISCOVERY AND UTILIZATION OF INTERESTS

The following ways of discovering interests were listed on the blackboard by the group:

- (1) Application blank check list.
- (2) Interview with campers on first day.
- (3) Presentation of all possible interest groups through demonstration, talk, or exhibits.
- (4) Discussion.
- (5) Chart with headings: (a) things to do, (b) personnel, (c) materials.

(6) Check list of possibilities in camp used the first day.

(7) Tent or cabin group discussion of possibilities.

(8) Tour around camp to see what campers have done in other years, what equipment and other program resource is available, and what natural resources located on the camp site offer exploration possibilities.

(9) Blank paper—asking for suggestions.

(10) Interest asked for every morning at breakfast.

(11) Take those who have not chosen some activity on a tour.

(12) Continual alertness to casual hints or comments made by campers.

In the discussion about incorporating interests discovered into the program these questions were raised:

Ought all campers have the experience of creative activity planning? Are some types of personality unadapted to this approach?

To what extent should a camp schedule be disrupted to accommodate program activities the campers might ask for?

These ideas were expressed:

Program building around interests implies a decentralization of control and stimulus. Guidance is shifted from whole camp participation techniques to small group and individual processes. This means record-keeping by counselors, wider program resources in persons, materials and equipment, and more adequate leadership supervision. When the camp processes are thus administered there is no problem of "schedule" being disrupted.

Interests are dynamic and not static. They are not fixed once they have been expressed. They shift in a kaleidoscopic manner. Because interests are expressed by one group, or at one time, is no guarantee that at a given moment in the camp they are present in any campers.

Interests which are expressed frequently mean more than their face value. They reveal more basic needs in the persons who express them. We ought to try to understand why campers are interested in the things they are interested in.

RECORD KEEPING

Besides various personnel records which aid in the understanding and guidance of individual campers there is a need

for program records which record what happens in interest groups and what activities are participated in by campers. The purposes of these program records is to facilitate more adequate educational supervision of the group activity. Analysis and suggestion is possible only when we know precisely what is happening. Some of the methods of program record-keeping which were mentioned were:

(1) Observation Scales which specify items to be watched for and judged.

(2) Full minutes or record to be kept by some member of the group.

(3) The minutes of interest group leaders' meetings.

(4) Impressionistic jottings by the group leader at the close of a period of activity.

(5) A prepared form on which camper's degree of interest, skill, participations and progress is checked.

PROBLEMS OF MOTIVATION

In a brief discussion the following ideas were expressed:

An activity should not be a requirement, but an opportunity.

Social pressures represented in camp spirit, "things that are done," dominant personalities on the staff, and even direct coercion, account for one type of motivation furnished by the camp processes.

My problem is being ingenious enough to devise ways of making desirable action desirable to the camper.

A suggestive example of interest motivation in the area of health was reported. Posture cameras and graphs interested children in physical development and health to such an extent that they went about to correct defects. Dr. Norman D.

Fratt, Department of Physical Education, Harvard University, was suggested as a person who had developed this idea extensively and it was urged that additional information be obtained from him.

CEREMONIALS

The values of ceremonials were listed as:

(1) They are symbols which can carry the highest meanings of the group. They give feeling-tone to the camp experience and to the ideals which grow in the life of the camp.

(2) A we-feeling, a unity, and sense of group support in those ideals and meanings is achieved.

(3) They are motivating, in the sense that they encourage the participants to go out and make more adequate adjustments in their relationships.

DANGERS OF CEREMONIALS

(1) Too often the forms are the results of the thinking of a few, and hence are not the possession of the whole group and cannot therefore really symbolize anything for them. This may be true with borrowed ceremonials, or those carried over from some other group. Frequently they are too adult.

(2) If the ceremonial is emotion-rousing apart from content, if it makes one feel, without feeling something concrete and conscious, it fails to achieve the values listed above and becomes merely an "emotional jag."

This is an area in the very heart of religion which needs more thought and experimentation.

"Interests" and Program Making*

It should be possible to look at any phase of a total camp program, such as a dramatic rehearsal, an evening in a

primitive camp or a meeting of the camp council, and see it as a part of a process and not as a finished product in any sense. Even a fragment of a developing whole should reveal certain educational

*Summary of an address given by Ruth Perkins.

principles and methods at work as part of a long process consciously set up.

It should be true, for instance, that:

(1) The activity is taking place because it meets real interests on the part of the members of the group. This is essential because back of any successful group is the interest around which it gathers and back of any genuine activity are the interests of the persons as individuals: i. e., people in the last analysis *need* to do the things that they do.

(2) It is recognized that the individuals are in a given group for different reasons and for reasons which probably differ from the obvious center of the group activity. For instance: one person may be there in order to build up a sense of adequacy; another, for an excitement which she craves; still another, to attain poise and an ability to manage herself in public. One may be there because her drive is toward giving play to an executive ability; one for self-expression and still another for escape. This is so important that some people go so far as to say (suppose now that we are talking about a dramatic performance) that we have no right to put on a play for an audience until these needs are fulfilled. And that even if not all plays written, perhaps by the group, are worthy of being produced for an audience, all honestly written plays are worthy of being acted by the group.

(3) The leader's interest is in making the potentialities within the individuals come to life. If this is true, the activity is worth while, even if it is in a fragmentary and imperfect form as far as program production is concerned. This means that the leader's eyes are on the growing capacities and fulfillments for the group rather than on the program development as such or even on his own successful performance as a leader. It means, finally, a new habit for the expectations of leaders and a satisfaction

with changes in attitudes and habits more than with perfect performances.

(4) That all materials, skills and information are offered at the point where the group is bent on having them to fulfill its purpose. Finally, various aspects of the learning process are seen to be at work:

(a) The primary, associate and concomitant learnings can be detected.

(b) The laws of learning are taken into account: a readiness for the activity, a chance to keep at it until there is achievement in it and the sense of satisfaction that comes from successful achievement.

(c) The three phases of a creative experience, that of intake, appropriation and outgo, are at work. Education in modern terms means the rate of growth or change for any individual.

Growth, by an individual, means taking something from the outside (the environment) making it part of one's self (really incorporating it into one's developing *self*) and doing in the future something different because of it. That is, if the result of a social experience is new understanding, or some fresh insight, if the experience of unusual beauty in art or human relationships brings greater appreciation than before, if an activity equips us with a new skill, etc., and we, because we appropriate its meaning, become different and therefore act differently, we have grown by that much. In other words, our actual habits of life have so far changed.

Creative experience is that experience which results in growth. It has three characteristics:¹

(1) Whatever the situation or activity may be it has to have reality that is conscious, direct interest and meaning for those concerned.

(2) If it is to become different in any

1. This statement of creative experience, using the terms "intake, appropriation, outgo," is a very free interpretation of a discussion led by Mrs. Lucy Sprague Mitchell at the National Board, Y. W. C. A.

sense, certain resources of information, wide experience, skills, expert help, etc., will be needed to change it.

(3) The result of the changed experience will have to find expression of some kind—in action, in some artistic form, or in a different method of work.

Back of such program there is, of course, careful fundamental work on the part of the leadership with respect to:

(1) Work before any program starts. Any leader needs to state his objectives both in terms of outcomes in primary, associate and concomitant learnings to be desired, and, on the other hand, to make such a careful analysis of a given group that, knowing the interests and abilities of that group, he can know at what point to begin and what methods to use. Following this there needs to be a rich assembling of the resources—people and material—that might conceivably be needed to fulfil a vitally developing program. And third, there must be an organization of experiences with the skills and knowledges that will be needed for satisfactory development.

(2) The program and the individual. In looking at a proposed program, direct questions need to be asked of it. Will this yield the desired outcome? What must be the three-fold elements: of experiences? skills? and information? Parallel with this there must be a clear-cut recognition of the hoped-for results for the individuals.

(3) The environment. The important thing to be said here is that such an attitude toward camp program inevitably brings about a change in the environment itself. It, of necessity, becomes different. In the first place, it, of itself, offers the suggestions of the best things to be done in camp and therefore is a powerful influence in determining the program developments that take place; and it offers a variety of opportunities for expression of the result of any creative experience. In addition to the va-

rious art forms, science forms, administrative forms, that may reflect the creative experiences, there are actually physical changes. New things may be built into the grounds, the resources within the library grow to meet the demands; the very names and symbols used, both feed into a program and are "grown" by it. And finally there come to be individuals among campers and leaders who so reflect this way of working that there is a contagion spread which is a powerful determinant of creative rather than the routine-ized system. (By environment we mean not only the physical setting but the program productions, the administrative attitudes and organization, leader attitudes, and resource material or all sorts).

(4) Record keeping. It is increasingly important for every program maker to keep records of changing experiences and the skills and resources used because the accumulated experiences both of leader and campers is important for the whole program planning job. It is especially important if there is to be any continuity of activity and growth and validity in the results of learnings. Whether devices for the discovery of interests are used or not, the responses of the campers, the programs built on those responses and the next cycle of response to that program need to be studied and their meanings discovered. Some way of rough jottings and periodic summaries of these need to be adopted by every leadership group for the purpose of a kind of research that has not yet been satisfactorily done in connection with program making.

There are two uses for careful records: one will be toward the actual development of vital program; the other will be toward the executing of that program; i.e., it will be differently handled because it will be seen to be inextricably related to the adjustments of individuals. In suggesting this record keeping we are running counter to the established habits of most of us and we recognize that

much resistance will have to be overcome since in the midst of a strenuous program it is difficult to take account unremittingly of the interactions between individuals and groups at the point of program activities. The same creative experience

already described is, however, in store for any leader who keeps records consistently enough over a long enough period of time to discover that they turn into an instrument in his hand for adequate and even exciting program making.

Some Further Program Considerations*

A PROGRAM PHILOSOPHY

The address on character objectives called to our attention the range of objectives sought by directors and suggested the relation of these objectives to the program process. The aims and purposes which either consciously or unconsciously underlie any planning determine to a very large degree the methods which are used.

Most of us are more articulate in expressing our general objectives than we are in clearly enumerating our specific ones. It is to the degree, however, that we set for ourselves very specific objectives that our methods will be developed to obtain the desirable outcomes. Any precise measuring of results will be possible, also, only as we set for ourselves very specific outcomes.

If one accepts the wider range of objectives, those that involve specific habits and attitudes, the program process becomes a different thing than it otherwise would be. Since everything that happens in the life of the camp makes some difference in the campers' attitudes and behavior, the entire life of the camp becomes the program. All of the interactions that go on about the table, in the cabin or tent, and in the informal activities about the grounds, are quite as important, if not more important, than the activities which are formally organized. Therefore, when we speak of the camp program we mean something larger than merely the organized activities which get into the day's schedule; we mean all of

the situations in the camp life which effect learnings and changes in persons.

GROUPING PRACTICE

What happens in the camper's intimate tent or cabin group becomes of great importance if we are interested in the total life experience in camp. The degree to which he is well adjusted in his family group will determine the degree to which he is adjusted to the entire camp life. It is of importance, then, that we give attention to the way in which campers are originally grouped as well as to ways of increasing the unity and spirit within the group during the camping period. Perhaps this family group can best be established by encouraging friends to be together rather than attempting to split friendship groups for the sake of enlarging acquaintanceship. Acquaintanceship with other campers will inevitably follow as activities are engaged in during the course of the days. One might enjoy playing tennis with persons but would not care to live with them. Since the cabin is home, the place where one relaxes between activities, where one comes to rest from the busy mingling with people, one wants a degree of congeniality and rapport that is not so necessary in the mere activity groupings during the day. Therefore, the securing of an adequate adjustment within a family group is a primary item in the program building process.

MOTIVATION

The reasons for campers' participation in the various activities of camp is a very

*Summary of address by Roy Sorenson.

important concern if we are interested in character objectives. "Why" campers participate, takes its place in importance with "how" they participate and "what" they participate in. This subject of motivation has been so discussed that I am sure you are familiar with the comments about awards and other methods of artificial incentives. It is suggested that there is a hierarchy of motives, that some are higher in the scale of desirability than others. The learnings are apt to be more desirable when an activity is engaged in for intrinsic motives than if it is engaged in for reasons that are extrinsic to the activity itself. We must continually ask ourselves in what ways our procedures influence the motives of campers and their participation. How do our methods of program determine the motives of campers?

The reasons advanced for and against the use of awards are many. Two justifications and two criticisms stand out most clearly in this listing. Advocates of the use of awards say that some incentive is necessary to initiate the participant into the joys and satisfactions of an activity. The satisfactions themselves then enter during the course of participation and make unnecessary further incentives. The educational psychologists speak of this process in terms of the "associative shift." Folks who are fearful of dangers inherent in the use of awards refute this argument by saying that the shift from the incentive to the satisfaction itself is a delicate adjustment. The rate of diminishing the incentive varies from person to person and must be no greater than the demands of the individual required. If the incentive is greater than the need and if it is rigidly built into a system, the participant becomes more dependent upon the incentive rather than less. The incentive becomes a crutch which is increasingly needed rather than the scaffolding which is taken away. The second argument ad-

vanced by the advocates of the use of awards is that folks require some recognition. Achievement in any area should be rewarded and good performance recognized. The refutation of this reason comes from the mental hygienists who point out that the persons most in need of recognition are most often the ones overlooked by such a system, and those who need it least because they already have the satisfaction of the achievement itself with the recognitions that accompany it, are not in need of additional approval. A sense of lack of achievement, of inadequacy, of isolation and of inferiority may be accentuated by the continued lack of securing the awards which loom so large in the approvals of the camp. Certainly, we camp directors and camp counselors need to exhaust every possibility of securing zestful, full-hearted, eager and spontaneous participation in the various aspects of camp life with the sense of achievement and satisfaction that inheres, because campers want to do these things for their own sakes.

ROUTINE

The way the routine in camp is handled needs to be considered as an aspect of the program process. The way in which new campers are initiated into the camp life, the method of service in the dining hall, the way in which announcements are made and ways of moving the group in and out of the dining room, etc., are all illustrations of parts of the camp life which have some influences on attitudes and learnings.

SOCIAL CONTROLS

Ways in which social controls such as traditions, camp spirit, approvals and disapprovals, expectations, etc., are used are important in program operation. These factors create the rôle of desirable conduct and therefore modify behavior. These controls can be used, either as an

aid to processes of discrimination, as influences to help the choice of sets of values after seeing them, or they can be used as a substitute for seeing ends. We are anxious for campers to visualize as far as possible outcomes and consequences of proposed action. Sometimes these social controls cause an acceptance of a mode of behavior without actually feeling the reasons which make such actions desirable. Therefore, the best use of the social controls is to create such a rôle of desirable conduct that it reinforces processes of discrimination rather than substitutes for them. It allows discussion of possible lines of conduct within the socially supporting framework of camp mores, which both aids desirable choice and helps control those least apt to accept the group decision.

DECISION MAKING

Many learnings reside in the decisions which are made in the course of the camp life. Many camp directors have seen the difference between co-operative government and self-government. Where campers have a large share in determining the program, time schedules, and rules, an educational opportunity of large significance is made available. A number of program conditioning factors are in the hands of the camp director long before camp opens. The equipment, site, personnel and other such resources, shape to a large degree those activities which are actually engaged in during the time of the camping season. Choices of campers are all made within the bounds of available equipment, personnel and materials. The camp council is a very necessary instrument in co-operative government. By including some counselors and staff persons with the larger number of campers, decisions can be arrived at by the shared thinking of the various elements in the total camp personnel. If the daily counselors' meetings are to be coaching periods, if the counselors are to

discuss individual campers and the wide variety of situations which they are called upon to handle during the course of day, they will have little time to talk about plans for the campfire program, or the conduct of a baseball league. Decisions about the camp program can be widely made by the campers' council and therefore, relieve the counselors' meeting so as to allow the concerns of counselors right of way in their own meeting. Decisions in the life of the camp are much more matters of attitude on the part of the director and counselors than that of some form of machinery. Certain decisions are out of the hands of any one in the camp and ought to be frankly stated as so. State regulations imposed by law and Board of Director regulations prescribe bounds beyond which the campers, counselors and director are not free to move.

At the beginning of a camping period it is necessary for the director to announce a tentative schedule of time and regulations. These can be announced as temporary, to be in effect until the camp council begins operation. Many of these temporary suggestions never come before the camp for decision. They are accepted as reasonable and taken for granted. When they are seriously questioned or when crises in the life of the camp arise which involve decisions regarding them, excellent opportunities for co-operative decision are presented. Perhaps these occasions furnish the best educational opportunity of any of the decisions which need to be made collectively. Other decisions which do not become conscious in the life of the camp may be projected into the council meeting by the director in order that the learnings involved in the making of such a decision have a chance to be realized. When a decision is before the camp for solution the director can be helpful in suggesting ways in which experts on the grounds, the director, the leaders' council, the camp

council and the whole camp can share in the decision making. The camp council might carefully formulate the issues and alternatives. The expert, in the person of swimming instructor, cook, or doctor (depending upon the issue) ought to be consulted to indicate the possible outcomes of some of these alternatives, and those deciding choose in the light of the probable balance of the values.

INTRODUCING CHANGES IN CAMP PROCEDURE

Whenever changes are proposed, educational considerations are involved. Many camp directors have introduced personnel guidance forms, a new plan of camp council, a different method of grouping campers, a change in the use of awards, etc., only to encounter resistance on the part of counselors or campers. If good educational methods are desirable in stimulating intrinsic interest of campers in activity, they are also desirable for counselors. There are several additional reasons why it is even more important in the case of counselors. Many of the procedures which the directors propose introducing rely upon the interest, carefulness and support of the counselors; therefore, many of the forms and many of the processes are invalidated because of half-hearted or resentful execution by counselors. Another reason why it is very important is that the morale and spirit of the counselors are very quickly reflected in the morale and spirit of the camp. No camp morale can rise above the level of its counselors. The following suggestions are offered as ways of introducing changes into the camp procedure in such fashion that one's associates share in the change.

(1) Information about proposed changes should come to the counselor before camp opens. If possible it should be done at a meeting before camp. If no meeting or training course is possible before camp the information should be sent

to the prospective counselor with reading recommendations included.

(2) In the presentation of the proposed plan the change should be interpreted as aids to counselors in their service to campers, not as research or experimentation, not as an aid to the camp director and not as "just good educational method." The latter reasons are secondary and incidental to their interest in being more helpful to their campers. Examples of situations which involve the counselor-camper relationship should be used to show how the plan will aid the counselor.

(3) Early in the camp we must see that the counselors do receive help in understanding the new plan of operation, the new record form, the new rating scale or whatever else is newly introduced. Conferences with the counselors, and counselor meetings should have this as a major objective during the early days of the camp. No matter what we say about how much these changes will help the counselor, if they do not experience satisfaction with the plan they will not continue to share cheerfully and accurately in the operation of the plan.

(4) Have counselors help work on the plans before camp opens, send the proposed forms or the proposed plan to the counselors or bring them to a meeting asking for suggestions of revision, addition or cutting. This should be done again as soon as they have started to use the forms or to participate in the plan. It will help the counselors understand the plan, the purposes back of the plan, and will give them a sense of participation.

(5) After the proposed plans have been carefully outlined to the counselors, give them full power to vote down the procedure. Better postpone fulfillment than have a prejudiced, untrustworthy experimentation. They ought to feel continually the power to throw out anything any time. The counselor's will, as well as the camp administrator's will, should ac-

count for the use of the plan. Be willing for your processes to move slower if thereby you guarantee carrying folks with you. These program processes are different from putting in a system of commissary forms, candy store inventory blanks, etc. Personnel forms and program processes deal with far more subtle material and depend far more upon the interest, understanding and desires of those using them.

RELIGION IN CAMP

Two sets of processes contribute to the religious objective in camp. One set of processes are described by everything we have discussed about camp program. The whole camp enterprise is religious to the degree that it contributes to the fullness and richness of lives of persons. Each item of camp procedure which contributes to this outcome is part of the religious program, and that part of camp method which fails in its enrichment of persons is non-religious. It has been this religious test which we have put to formulating objectives, practices of grouping, motivation, decision making, routine, using social controls, and introducing change because we see that all of these affect persons and represent the camp's impact upon the lives of the campers.

The other set of procedures seeks to make conscious the best meanings which emerge in the course of camp life. The use of ceremonial, ritual, song, worship and prayer symbolizes the highest values of the group in terms which create desires for these values. The chapel, campfire, Sunday services, morning talks, tent or cabin prayers, pageantry, ceremonials, all offer opportunities to crystallize into symbolic form the meanings which are emergent in the experience together. Some of this symbolization will make use of traditional symbols of historic religion, some will use expressional forms unique in the life of that camp group, and some will use thought forms and poetic expression current in our contemporary life. Whatever form the symbols take, they weld the feeling of the corporate group toward the highest values present in such fashion that individuals are led toward the greater desire of such values.

When one says that religious education or character education with all of its implications is at the heart of camp objectives it must be matched with careful examination of every aspect of the camp life accompanied by careful methods of obtaining such results in a truly twenty-four-hour day contact.

CHAPTER III

How to Study and Deal With Individual Campers

Report of Group Discussion*

OPPORTUNITIES FOR BEHAVIOR ADJUSTMENT IN THE SUMMER CAMP

(1) The summer camp because of its very nature is in a strategic position to influence the social adjustment of boys and girls. It involves the whole person and provides a unified environment such as does not exist in the community.

(2) The give and take in camp life which is at the very heart of the living process is a potential asset for social adjustment.

(3) There are innumerable opportunities in the summer camp for each camper to acquire skill in some areas that will provide a sense of adequacy and worth which comes only with mastery and achievement.

(4) That intangible yet potent force which is called the "camp spirit" has tremendous influence on the social attitudes and conduct of the campers. Embodied in the heart of the camp spirit are nearly always such behavior patterns as co-operation, friendliness, helpfulness and unselfishness.

(5) The camper has an opportunity to engage in things which he or she likes to do. These vital interests of boys or girls may be capitalized for purposes of more adequate social adjustment.

(6) The freedom and democratic relationships which exist in many camps allow the fullest creative expression of the individual's personality.

(7) Counselors and leaders usually

understand boys or girls and are friendly, helpful and constructive in their attitudes.

(8) Most behavior difficulties in children are the result of unwholesome social conditions primarily in the home. Absence from these conditions makes possible an opportunity to work with the child in a more wholesome environment.

CONCERNS OF THE MEMBERS IN THE SECTION

(1) We want to know more about the kinds of persons that come to our camps. What are the ways in which they need help? How are we to discover these needs more fully?

(2) We want more knowledge of and skill in using the principles and techniques of guidance.

(3) How may we increase our understanding of the subjective factors in personality? What are the motives of human behavior? How are the ideas and attitudes of a person conditioned and developed?

(4) How may we estimate the changes which take place in campers? This is the only way we can know whether our leadership is successful or not.

KINDS OF BEHAVIOR OBSERVED IN THE SUMMER CAMP

Members of the group listed the following kinds of campers as being rather commonly found in both boys and girls camps:

- (1) Those who do not fit in with a group.
- (2) The lonesome camper.
- (3) The kind who are finicky about their food.

*These materials represent the work of the section on *How to Study and Deal With Individual Campers*, under the direction of Hedley S. Dimock. The sectional record was kept by H. J. Boorman, Y. M. C. A., Kenosha.

- (4) The kind who are timid and shy.
- (5) The homesick camper.
- (6) The bully.
- (7) The bullheaded and obstinate.
- (8) Those who razz others.
- (9) The over-dependent.
- (10) The show-off.
- (11) The one who won't follow the leadership that has been selected by the group.
- (12) The coward who fears snakes, animals, water, falling, appearing before the group, the dark.
- (13) The purposeless camper.
- (14) One who gives up.
- (15) The lazy camper.
- (16) The one who pretends sickness.
- (17) The one who exhibits temper tantrums.
- (18) The sullen and sulky.
- (19) One who steals.
- (20) The profane and vulgar camper.
- (21) The one who is extremely nervous, bites his nails, etc.
- (22) The selfish camper.
- (23) The one who is troubled with enuresis (bed-wetting).
- (24) The one who needs to be developed to follow others.
- (25) The over-critical, fault finding camper.
- (26) The one who needs to learn to co-operate with others.
- (27) The one who knows it all, usually the old camper.
- (28) The one who doesn't get a square deal from his tent leader and the camp director.
- (29) The sissy.
- (30) The camper who wants his own way.
- (31) The one needing information of various sorts, vocational, health, sex, and so on.
- (32) The camper who has a crush on a leader or one of the other campers.
- (33) The solitary, seclusive type.
- (34) The day dreamer.
- (35) The liar.
- (36) The hyperactive camper.
- (37) The "limelight" seeker.
- (38) The mischief maker, and particularly the one who gets others to do the mischief.
- (39) The spoiled child.
- (40) The irresponsible camper.

THE MOTIVES OF BEHAVIOR

Six fundamental drives or urges seem to be largely responsible for all of our conduct and behavior. It is the assumption in our personal guidance work that if all of these urges or drives are satisfied in a wholesome way most of the

emotional and personal difficulties of persons will be avoided.¹

(1) Every camper tends to avoid situations which involve monotony, dullness and boredom, and to seek situations providing novelty, change, excitement, thrill and adventure. This fundamental human drive or urge has been called *the quest for new experience*.

(2) Every person tends to avoid situations where the physical appetites are not satisfied such as hunger, thirst and restlessness, and seek situations providing *satisfaction of physical appetites* such as food, drink and sex.

(3) Every camper tends to avoid situations where he is unloved, unwanted, unappreciated, and tends to seek and to find satisfaction in situations where there is appreciation, understanding, intimacy, affection and rapport. Thomas has called this fundamental human craving *the desire for response*.

(4) Every person tends to avoid situations where there is fear, danger and insecurity and to seek and find satisfaction in situations where there is security and protection. This basic human urge has been called *the desire for security*.

(5) Every camper tends to avoid situations where he is ridiculed, scorned and disapproved, and tends to seek and find satisfaction in situations where he has social approval, status, commendation and prestige. This basic urge has been called *the desire for social approval*.

(6) Every person tends to avoid situations where he is frustrated, thwarted, or given a sense of failure, and seeks those situations where he can have success, achievement and mastery. This drive has been called *the desire for success*.

In understanding the behavior of campers it is wise always to ascertain

1. This classification is essentially that given in Watson and Spence, *Educational Problems for Psychological Study*, p. 326.

which of these central and inescapable human urges are involved.

COMMON PATTERNS OF BEHAVIOR EMPLOYED IN SATISFYING THESE BASIC URGES

While it is precarious to make any classification of the different ways in which persons try to satisfy these basic urges the following is perhaps as satisfactory as any and may prove useful in achieving greater insight and understanding of the attitudes and behavior of our campers. When persons do not get "normal" satisfactions in life any of the following behavior patterns may result.

(1) *Day dreaming, fantasy, reverie.* Satisfactions here are sought or achieved in the imagination. This method of satisfying basic urges is unwholesome when the dream becomes an end in itself and takes the individual farther and farther from reality. There are at least two patterns which day dreaming may follow: (a) The "conquering hero" type, where the satisfaction comes to the individual by imagining himself in a position of success and achievement; (b) the "suffering hero" type where the individual gets sympathy for himself. This motive may easily lead to ideas of persecution and martyrdom where the individual thinks everybody is against him. It is this general pattern of behavior which is central in paranoia.

(2) *Compensation.* We compensate for a lack of inadequacy in one field by getting our satisfaction in unwholesome ways. Seeking "the limelight" by boasting and bragging is one of the most common forms of compensatory behavior in a summer camp. It usually indicates a sense of inadequacy and failure. Stealing is frequently the outgrowth of a sense of inadequacy and failure. Bullying, domineering, grouching, and acting officious are common methods of compensation for lack of status and prestige.

The projection by parents of their own unsatisfied ambitions or wishes on a child is another way of satisfying unfulfilled desires.

(3) *Rationalization.* We pretend we have something which we do not have. We excuse ourselves for our failure, or we make ourselves feel that we did not want the things missed, anyway. Rationalization always finds some way to justify whatever happens.

There are several types of this rationalization process: (a) the "Pollyanna" type, instead of looking at the cause of failure or difficulty, pretends that it is all for the best; (b) the "sour grapes" type rationalizes failure by pretending that we did not want to succeed; and (c) the "projection" type puts the blame for our defects, inadequacy or failure, outside of ourselves, on the environment, our heredity, the teacher, the employer, etc.

(4) *Defense and escape mechanisms.* (a) Temper tantrums, whether of the more overt type or whether in the form of sullenness, obstinacy, or being easily hurt, are usually devices for escaping disagreeable things. Adults show the same pattern though in more subtle ways. (b) Being over-critical of other persons is another method of taking attention from our own defects. Some psychiatrists say that we tend to criticize others most at the points where we are the weakest ourselves. (c) Being sick is a method both for getting attention and for avoiding disagreeable things. In a summer camp, sometimes this sickness is merely pretense. In many cases it is real, although mental rather than organic. Shell shock cases in the war are splendid illustrations of ways of escape for the soldier when the desire for security clashed with the desire for social approval and status. Hysteria is also a method of escape. Without an "audience" it is not used.

METHODS OF ESTIMATING BEHAVIOR CHANGES

While there have been many questions as to the possibility of refined measurements of such a complex thing as character, it is a fact that we do constantly make judgments about changes in people which constitute measurement in a rough way. Whenever we say that one person is more selfish than another, or that a boy has become less timid, we have in these judgments been actually "measuring" character. Our efforts at character measurement are attempts to get more accurate and more refined judgments.

That the summer camp needs to seek more seriously to appraise the changes which take place in campers is now being generally recognized. We really have but little idea of the results which come from the one hundred million dollars spent annually by parents to send their children to camp. The various methods and techniques for estimating behavior changes which are suggested below represent steps in the direction of a more adequate appraisal of camp results. Most of them have been used already in summer camps.

(1) *A record or description of behavior made by the counselor daily or at frequent intervals.* This is one way to estimate changes in conduct. If such a record is kept of each camper during the season we will have a much more accurate basis than we now have for judging the effects of our camps.

(2) *Standardized Tests.* Some camps have used standardized tests of health, honesty, prejudice, etc., to estimate changes in knowledge and attitudes. These tests are administered at the beginning and end of the camp period.

(3) *Behavior Rating Scales.* This is probably the most commonly used device. Any items of behavior may be included in the form. Items selected should be those which the camp assumes may be

influenced by the camp experience. When this device is used as a means of measuring behavior change rather than merely as a tool of leadership many precautions should be taken. At least two persons should rate each boy. Where the degree of assurance in rating is low the items should not be considered. Probably the first rating should not be made until the end of at least four or five days, so that the leaders will have ample opportunity to see the camper in a variety of situations. The final rating may be made any time before the close of camp.

(4) *Before and after camp techniques.* Several camps have been getting parents and other persons to rate boys on a behavior rating scale before going to camp and again after the camp period. The Indiana Y. M. C. A. Camp Commission under the chairmanship of Mr. Roland Ure, South Bend, has developed some excellent instruments for parents' evaluation of results. School teachers and club leaders, as well as parents, are being utilized for this purpose. This is one of the best methods of discovering whether there is any "transfer" of learnings from the camp to the community situation.

HOW SHALL WE MAKE THE CAMP EXPERIENCE PART OF A YEAR LONG EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE?

The importance of making camp part of a year long program of education for the boy or girl needs to be repeatedly stressed. The chief opportunity of the short term camp in particular lies in linking up the camp experience of the girl or boy with what goes on for the rest of the year. The Y. M. C. A., for example, can make its camp program part of a continuous experience for the boy if it possesses a scheme of continuous guidance for the boy. Among the methods for facilitating this objective might be the following:

(1) Securing as much data as possible concerning the boys from club leaders, school teachers, parents, etc., before camp.

(2) Having the leader of the boys' club come to camp if possible and share in the experience there.

(3) Make the data secured about the camper during the summer available to the club leader, school teacher, parent, etc., at the close of camp.

(4) In some cases actual contact with the camper may be continued through the year by Y. M. C. A. secretaries, scout leaders, or others.

(5) Recruit boys who are friends, or who belong to the same club or group in the community, for the camp. These boys should probably be grouped together in camp if the largest "carry over" is to be secured.

Principles and Methods of Personal Guidance*

THE PROBLEM AND POINT OF VIEW

The central question for camp directors and leaders is how to improve our methods for the achievement of the best character growth of each individual camper. Our point of view is not one that concerns only the unadjusted or problem camper but one that seeks the best resources and methods and devices for assuring the largest and best development for each boy or girl. The center of focus in any educational enterprise should be individual persons. How may we, with the fifty or two hundred boys or girls in our camps, focus all of our resources in program and in leadership on each individual so that his particular character needs are understood and met in the most adequate way possible?

We have already referred to the necessity of having clarity and definiteness in our character aims and objectives. We are especially concerned now with methods for discovering the particular character needs of each camper and with the methods for meeting these needs in the most effective way possible.

What are the sorts of behavior that we find in our campers which present for us objectives for further character education? The members of the section on "How to Study and Deal With Individ-

ual Campers" were discussing this morning the kinds of behavior that they had observed in campers. It was rather an illuminating experience for some of us to discover that boy and girl campers did not seem to be very different. Among the kinds of behavior patterns that seemed to be common to both boys and girls are the following: the lonesome camper, the camper who is finicky about his food, the timid, shy and seclusive camper, the homesick camper, the bully, the dependent camper, the show-off, the camper who has fears, whether of snakes, water, animals, or the dark, the purposeless camper, the camper who pretends sickness to avoid disagreeable things, the camper who has a crush on a leader or one of the other campers.¹

METHODS OF STUDYING INDIVIDUAL CAMPERS

There are many ways and methods being utilized in current camp practice for studying individual campers and locating particular objectives in terms of the developing person. These methods range from the casual interview and observation to the more thorough methods of character analysis, testing or rating. A few of the most commonly employed methods and procedures will be enumerated:

*Address by Hedley S. Dimock.

1. See pp. 16-17 for complete list.

(1) Information from parents and school teachers can be of real value in revealing the particular needs of the camper. Significant information from parents may be secured through letters, interviews before or during camp, or through a Parents' Information Form. A growing number of camps are drawing on all of these sources of parental information. A parent writes for example: "Sometimes Norman is very wilful and when he makes up his mind that he won't do something you just can't make him do it." That one sentence gives us much insight to Norman's behavior—and his parents. So for nearly three hours one day in camp Norman tried his little device of stubbornness which had previously worked as a means of securing his own way. Finally he gave in. He learned that there was one place on earth at least where his stubbornness pattern was of no avail as a means of securing what he wanted or avoiding the disagreeable.

In addition to information from parents, other social agencies such as schools and churches would gladly furnish facts about boys and girls that would enable the camps to make the most important contribution to their development. A Chicago Y. M. C. A. camp director was telling me of an interesting experience he had last year with a school principal. In approaching the school principal before camp to secure data on the I. Q. and school standing of some boys the principal expressed surprise that a Y. M. C. A. camp should be interested in such things. After the camp was over the camp director had another contact with the principal concerning these boys and the principal was much more surprised to discover that the camp had gathered more significant facts about the behavior, attitudes and social background of the boys than the school had even thought of securing. Co-operation between the camp and the school in

the task of a more adequate development of boys and girls will come rapidly as understanding increases.

(2) Having drawn on all available sources of information about the camper previous to the opening of camp there still remain various methods of observation and study during the camp period. Four different procedures or devices are now being employed by the summer camp—The Interview, Careful Observation of Conduct, Behavior Frequency Rating Scales, and Character Tests.

In a number of camps it is the practice for each counselor to *interview* all of the members of his group the first day or two in camp. An interview form is used to guide the counselor in securing important information concerning the boy's background, dominant interests and desires, and other important aspects of his life.

A careful, alert and discriminating *observation* of the behavior of the camper is another avenue to a better understanding of the specific ways in which the camp may help him in his development. Campers who are quarrelsome, sulky, boastful, bragging, "limelight" lovers, un-co-operative and irresponsible, or over-critical, may be readily observed and studied. Counselors should have a list of the kinds of behavior to observe and should record at least two or three times a week the results of their observations on each camper. The chief limitation of this method is that the camper who is most likely to attract the attention of the counselor may not be the one most in need of help. The camper who is disobedient, who breaks regulations, or who is very aggressive in his behavior, is the one most likely to cause the counselor concern. The shy, timid, seclusive camper, for example, probably causes the counselor no trouble and therefore little concern. From the standpoint of mental hygiene, it is the latter type of behavior rather than the former which is the more

important. Wickman's study, *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes*, is very revealing at this point and should be carefully studied by all camp directors who are attempting to develop wholesome social attitudes in their campers.

A third method for studying the camper is the Behavior Rating Scale.¹ After a camper has been in camp a few days the counselor rates the members of his group on a number of items such as quarreling, bragging, showing initiative and resourcefulness, acting timid and shy, etc. Specific objectives for each camper are immediately discovered on the basis of such a rating.

Some camps have employed intelligence, attitude or emotional tests as a means of locating character needs in campers. Camp Hastings, Wisconsin, which is one of the camps operated by the Chicago Y. M. C. A., found the Woodworth-Mathews Personal Data Sheet extremely valuable in its program of individual study and guidance.

Every camper possesses a rich opportunity for study and personal guidance. Some campers, of course, challenge us more than others because of their conspicuous needs, but the age of perfect boys and girls has not yet come. We are talking, therefore, not about the abnormal or unusual camper but of the "everyday needs of the everyday camper."

There is no magic character-making potency in these devices and methods. They are incidental, not primary. They are useful only when camp leaders deliberately use them as helpful methods for the study and guidance of campers. Nothing can be substituted for understanding, knowledge and insight of persons and the process and situations in which character is developing. A stethoscope in the hands of a doctor is a useful device because he has knowledge and understanding of the processes and con-

ditions of the heart. A rating scale, test, or interview guide is useful in the hands of a counselor only if he possesses insight and understanding of human personality and the complex nature of its development. It can be used, of course, as an aid to the development of such insight and understanding.

PRINCIPLES AND METHODS OF PERSONAL GUIDANCE

The place at which we need the greatest skill and insight is how to get the kind of results which seem to be desirable after we have studied our campers. There is no short cut, as we have previously suggested, to the attainment of this objective. Understanding must be developed and our methods must grow out of our understanding and analysis of each individual camper. Just as a doctor is unable to prescribe treatment until he has made some diagnosis of the defect and causal factors so, as character educators, we are unable to formulate methods of dealing with persons until we have something corresponding to a diagnosis of their needs and past experience. Perhaps the most concrete way to open up this very large topic of principles and methods of dealing with persons is to describe rapidly two or three rather typical cases and draw out from these actual situations certain principles and methods which are implied.

Here then for example is Martin, age eight, whose trunk is the repository of many articles not his own; whose imagination does not distinguish clearly between fact and fancy; whose breadth of interest in camp activity is narrow; who cries or sulks when things are not going his way; and who is fussy about his food. The first step obviously is to try to ascertain how he got this way and what factors have tended to produce these attitude and behavior patterns. The story, in short, is one of parents who have been channeling the boy's energies narrowly

1. For a sample of a Behavior Rating Scale adapted for camp use, see Dimock and Hendry, *Camping and Character*, Association Press.

along academic lines. He has been conceived as a world wonder in the making. He has been rewarded for his school attainments until play and the more active interests of a boy have been almost completely excluded from his life. His "stealing" activities in the camp must be interpreted as the expression of energies and impulses which have had no other outlet. His temper tantrums, of course, are indications of indulgent parents. In dealing with Martin we made sure that his tantrums did not result in securing his own way; we located the interests in camp which were strongest, and exploited them in order to satisfy the basic urges in wholesome and socially desirable ways. Within a month, working with some such method as has been crudely stated here, most of these behavior patterns disappeared.

Here is another rather typical kind of person we face in camp. This boy's name is Ezekiel. He is ten years old, has russet-red hair, tapering crown, and heavily freckled face. Almost the first hour in camp he is surrounded by a group of boys who are looking at him with curiosity and asking him over and over again to tell them his name. It is evident to us at once that Ezekiel is going to need our help. We find that he has practically no concern for the rights or feelings of other persons; that his imaginative lying knows no bounds; that he is always into mischief or "deviltry" of some kind; that camp regulations are merely things to be broken at pleasure; that he has but little interest in the general program of the camp or in the many types of activities that are under way. Our problem is to discover why Ezekiel possesses these patterns of behavior. It is not difficult to ascertain at least some of the factors which have conditioned his behavior. His striking physical appearance has resulted in a sense of difference from other folks which is undoubtedly responsible for many of these behavior mechanisms that

have developed. If we can help Ezekiel to feel more like a person and less like a curiosity; if we can build up within him a greater sense of his own worth; if we can help him to find his social status and approvals in more wholesome and desirable ways, we are sure that his braggadocio and destructiveness and "lying" will soon disappear. So we work at the things in which he is already interested such as swimming, sailing and fishing. We give him plenty of opportunity to improve his skills in these directions. We give him a place in the life of the group in terms of his interest and achievement in these activities. This combined with other methods does bring about within six weeks some real transformations in the behavior of Ezekiel.

A number of principles and methods of personal guidance are either explicit or implicit in these two descriptions. Others may be enumerated now that may not be involved in these descriptions.

PRINCIPLES AND METHODS OF DEALING WITH INDIVIDUALS

(1) We should distinguish between symptoms and causes in conduct or attitudes and deal with the underlying or causal factors. Braggadocio, lying, stealing, and destructiveness are frequently merely symptoms of some more basic need or maladjustment. In Ezekiel's case they grew directly out of his sense of difference and inadequacy. To deal with the overt behavior in itself would be as futile as for a doctor to give a patient a cold bath because he has a high temperature. Just as the causal factors in the temperature must be ascertained and dealt with, so must the contributing or causal factors in human conduct and behavior be understood and dealt with.

(2) A thorough understanding of the fundamental human urges and drives should be possessed by anyone who would deal effectively with boys or girls. The fundamental human urge involved in

Ezekiel's behavior was that central quest of all of us for a sense of worth, for social status, for social approval and commendation. Without these things one cannot live. If we are unable to secure them in wholesome ways we will secure them in unwholesome and socially undesirable ways. Secure them, however, in some way we must. A first step in dealing with any person is to find out whether the basic urges of life are being satisfied and if so, how¹.

(3) We should distinguish between important and insignificant kinds of behavior. So often we are concerned about things which annoy us or which are at variance with our adult ideas of right conduct. Our counselors are more likely to be concerned about the problems they have with campers, than with the problems of the campers themselves. They tend to be concerned, that is, with the camper who breaks regulations, who is disobedient, or who does not carry his share of the load. In reality some person who causes them no trouble at all may be in much greater need of social adjustment and socialization. Wickman's study reported in *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes* shows that psychologists and school teachers differ greatly as to what kinds of behavior are most serious from the standpoint of effective personality adjustment. The school teachers are likely to be concerned by conduct which transgresses their authority, or violates good classroom procedure and order. The psychologist, on the other hand, rates these kinds of behavior as least significant among fifty and places at the top such items as seclusive, unsocial and withdrawing behavior, acting suspicious, feeling misunderstood and picked upon, acting unhappy, depressed and dissatisfied, being resentful, etc. This list merits careful study by anyone dealing with persons.

(4) We should be free from emotional attitudes, whether of shock, anger or sympathy, in dealing with campers. A good leader or counselor probably needs the detachment of a doctor in dealing with a patient. He does not get alarmed or shocked or angry no matter what the state of pathology may be. A good counselor or leader of youth similarly needs to have calm and poise if he is to be able to evoke the confidence of boys or girls and to deal with them helpfully.

TECHNIQUE AND METHODS OF BEHAVIOR GUIDANCE

The following techniques and methods are suggestive of ways that may be used in dealing with individuals in camp. They are by no means inclusive.

(1) *The interview.* The interview itself may be a means of giving a person insight concerning himself that will be a factor in the reconstructing of his attitudes of behavior. This is primarily the method of psychoanalysis which works on the theory that when the person himself understands the factors that have been at work the unwholesome attitude or emotional condition will be remedied. Sometimes just "talking the thing out" is in itself helpful.

(2) *Methods for satisfying the urges which are being inadequately expressed.* Very many behavior difficulties grow out of a sense of inadequacy, lack of achievement, lack of status or social contacts. To give a person a sense of achievement and mastery in some activity or situation very often is a valuable therapeutic measure. In the case of Ezekiel this was the chief method employed. His interest in swimming, sailing and fishing was exploited in such a way that he got satisfaction and a sense of achievement which made him feel much more at home in the group. To give a person companions or recognition in a social group is another helpful way of satisfying basic urges. The camp situation with its innumerable

1. The fundamental urges or drives underlying all human behavior are described on p. 17.

activities and opportunities for achievement provides helpful resources, if they are intelligently related to the particular person.

(3) *Group life and pressures.* Life in the group itself, involving social responsibility, co-operation and "give and take," is an important factor in behavior adjustments. The approvals and disapprovals of the group may be utilized in such a way that the irresponsible or unco-operative member changes behavior. In some cases, however, outward behavior may be made to change without the deeper motive or attitude being re-adjusted. Such changes would likely be but temporary. A suggestive illustration of how group situations may be used for conduct adjustment has been reported in *Camping and Character*.¹ Six boys, all of whom were unco-operative, selfish and irresponsible, were sent out on a canoe trip together. In planning this enterprise the notion was that very often these boys were social parasites without recognizing the fact, but if all of them were sent together on one canoe trip, somebody would have to paddle or the canoe would not move, somebody would have to carry the packs over the portage or there would be no blankets to sleep in, somebody would have to cook the food or there would be nothing to eat. The actual demands of the situations arising day after day called for entirely new adjustments and some of the boys not merely changed their behavior, but, what was even more important, got new insight of the fundamental attitudes involved.

(4) *Change of environment.* Since it is clearly recognized that behavior is as much a function of a social situation as of the individual's nervous system, change in environment is often an essential for social re-adjustment. Sometimes it means moving a person from one group to another. Sometimes it means

separating two brothers. Outside of the camp field it usually means working on the parent and home environment. One of the questions which all camps face when they are attempting to deal intelligently with individuals is how the home situation, which has been largely responsible for the camper's attitudes and behavior difficulties, may be changed. If it is merely a matter of a camper who is finicky about his food, a parent can be told of the progress made by the camp, and the recommendation made that the method employed in camp be continued in the home. It is not easy, however, for camps to relate themselves to parents in such a way that many of the other behavior difficulties due to home conditions may be altered. This is a point along which progress needs to be earnestly sought.

THE ORGANIZATION OF CAMP FOR PERSONAL GUIDANCE

The following items are involved in any adequate system of personal guidance.

(1) A cumulative record for each camper is essential. Data should be gathered concerning health, camp participation, family background, attitudes and behavior, etc.

(2) Some capable person to head up personnel work should be provided. He should be at least fairly well equipped with principles and methods of mental hygiene, psychology and sociology. He should have, especially, skill in counseling and guidance. This person should be sufficiently free from other activities to devote his time to this central concern of the camp. His first function would be to help counselors in dealing with campers. Every counselor should be helped to see specific objectives for each camper. The personnel director should also help him in the matter of insight and understanding of campers' attitudes and behavior and in methods of working with

1. See p. 198.

campers. He will do this through leaders' meetings, through constant counseling with leaders about their campers and through report and observation forms which are used by the leaders. Sometimes he will deal directly with boys through interview and examination, but as far as possible his function will be to increase the counselor's ability to deal with his own campers.

(3) The allocation of the budget will indicate rather closely what the objectives of the camp director really are and in what he places his reliance. If he primarily seeks personality development to be achieved by a careful guidance policy that embraces each camper, the budget will be devoted largely to a personnel director and good tent or cabin counselors. If he lacks the character objective for his camp, or if his faith is in the productiveness of activities as such, the budget will provide for activity directors and instructors.

(4) A person-centered summer camp has many implications for the selection and supervision of counselors. Counselors must be selected with great care as to their personality factors, their knowledge of child psychology, and their social and educational skill. Counselors' meetings will be utilized for discussing particular campers and how the resources of the camp may further the growth of campers, rather than be devoted primarily to routine matters which should be handled in other ways. Persons in supervisory capacities will be working with their eye on what happens to campers as their chief concern.

(5) Some camps will doubtless want to continue the present practice of having

a relationship with a consulting psychologist or psychiatrist who will visit the camp occasionally during the summer, stimulating leaders, assisting in the diagnosis of certain campers and leaving the responsibility for educative measures with the camp. Colleges, universities, and child guidance clinics offer possibilities for such contact.

(6) A much closer integration of cabin leaders and instructors of activities needs to be secured. The knowledge of the camper which the tent or cabin leader possesses should be made available to each instructor with whom the camper has relationship. The instructor's objectives for the persons participating in the activity under his leadership should be as clear, if possible, as is the group leader's. This can only be achieved when definite plans are made for helping the instructor to focus his attention upon the particular personality needs of the campers participating in his activity. In some camps the instructors are using a behavior rating scale to help in sizing up campers and in locating specific objectives.

(8) The motivation of counselors and the camp staff to engage with enthusiasm in a camper-centered program needs very careful study. Good educational method needs to be used in arousing their interest in any new plans or devices which the camp director feels should be incorporated in the camp. Suggestions for securing a good motivation for leaders growing out of experience will be found on pages 14-15 of this report. They will repay the most careful study of any camp director who is planning advances in his program methods or procedures.

CHAPTER IV

The Selection, Training and Supervision of Leaders*

No more crucial set of problems confronts the camp director than the selection, training and supervision of leaders. Modern camps whose practices are hewn out of educational principles find that the chief obstacle to the realization of their goal is personnel. A great hiatus yawns between our character producing purpose and our resources in trained personnel. Two studies which have been made at Camp Ahmek indicate very clearly a high correlation between quality of leadership and changes in the behavior of campers. Obviously the best method of testing the effectiveness of leadership is to measure the growth in campers for whom the counselors are responsible. The counselors at Ahmek, on two consecutive years, were rated by the members of the Camp Cabinet and then placed in four classes, A, B, C, and D, without any knowledge of the behavior change scores of their boys. Quite independently the behavior changes which had been observed in the campers were rated and scores recorded. The table below indicates for the years 1928 and 1929 the relation of the behavior changes of campers to the rating of counselors responsible for them in camp. These figures suggest that negative behavior results in camp can only be eliminated by introducing a much more discriminating process of leadership selection. Our practices in recruiting personnel have been full of flaws.

AHMEK RESULTS

Grade of Counselor	Average change per camper	
	1928	1929
A	5.9	11.6
B	7.9	8.7
C	2.6	6.9
D	-5.6	...

ANALYSIS OF SELECTION PRACTICES

Five methods of leadership selection which have had considerable vogue during the past twenty years are rapidly being discarded. Each has constituted a reliance on something which has been found wanting.

(1) For too long many camp directors have depended upon volunteers. Experience has demonstrated that "consecrated incompetence" cannot produce required results. Frequently lay persons who are most ready to offer their services are most inadequately equipped from the standpoint of personality and training.

(2) No longer may we rely on our own ability to appraise subjectively the qualifications of persons applying for positions in our camps. We are too familiar with the many disastrous mistakes that have been made by exposing campers to counselors who should never have been appointed. Reliance on subjective judgments of persons is doomed.

(3) Many camps, particularly short term camps, change their counselors every period or rely on having persons drop in for a week or ten days "to help out." Not only is it difficult to maintain a training process under these conditions, but even where training does occur, there

*Address by Charles E. Hendry, combined with materials from the sectional course on this topic. The sectional record was kept by E. B. Zeller, Y. M. C. A., Milwaukee.

is no dividend, so to speak, in succeeding periods. No sooner do you train your staff than you have a new staff to deal with.

(4) There seems to be a definite trend toward securing more mature counselors. Younger persons exhibiting potential leadership ability are being used as assistant leaders or counselors-in-training.

(5) A conspicuous practice, especially in the private camp field, which constitutes a distinct embarrassment to the camping movement as a whole, has been the desire to locate persons for leadership positions in camp who have a following of campers. Fortunately, most organization camps have not been embarrassed at this point. As the camp movement increasingly achieves educational dignity and status this practice will be eliminated of necessity.

Our analysis thus far has been negatively weighted. Let us consider briefly two positive aspects of this problem. First, a great number of camps are placing much importance on their application instrument and the initial interview with the applicants. Twenty selected camps are experimenting this coming summer with a new application which has been produced by a group of camp directors representing the Y. M. C. A. camps in Chicago and the Central Region. It represents an adaptation of an application blank developed a few years ago by Camp Brooklyn. One whole page is devoted to discovering the degree of interest, participation and teaching experience of the applicants over a wide range of activities. Another section of the application lists fourteen typical problem situations which might arise in camp. The applicant is required to state how he would deal with the situation in each case. The following is an illustration:

In a certain cabin there was a fellow who would "wise crack" and make peculiar noises after taps. When the boys were almost asleep a rock would suddenly hit the floor and a loud voice exclaim, "There goes my false teeth."

Some of the fellows would get mad while others began to make "whoopie." The result was that the next cabin would wake up and start making a noise too.

An application device of this sort is calculated to impress the applicant with the educational purpose of the camp. It is also hoped that it may have some diagnostic value in helping the camp director select persons who seem to have the qualities requisite for the positions involved.

Second, camp directors are beginning to follow the lead of industry and education in seeking through research to discover the characteristics of effective leaders, and, if possible, a set of tests or techniques for the selection of leaders that will be predictive of success. A research project which promises to be of real help on this problem has already been formulated by a committee composed of myself as chairman, Roy Sorenson, and Dr. Hedley S. Dimock. Twenty camps, representing both organization and private camps distributed widely throughout Canada and the United States, are participating in this co-operative research. Results are being anticipated with considerable eagerness.

JOB SPECIFICATION

Every camp has its parasites among its personnel. We have all had men in camp whose chief purpose was to secure a good tan or enjoy a vacation. We have all experienced the disillusioned counselor who finds that camp is a place where educational leadership is essential. Fortunately, in a sense, no one is to blame but ourselves. The difficulty lies in our having given an inadequate interpretation of the job. We have overlooked the importance of job specification and have passed up a significant training opportunity.

An analysis of practices in relation to job specification indicates a wide range, from camps who completely ignore its importance to camps who attempt a formulation of staff functions on quite an

elaborate basis. Frequently the camp director himself works out a careful set of functions or specifications for each member of his staff. Often this is incorporated into an individual contract. Another camp has a meeting of its cabinet in the Spring, at which time they work out co-operatively (a) the functions within the major departments of the camp, such as business, program, personnel, health, and (b) from them they develop individual job specifications, including one for the director himself. A third practice is represented in securing statements from counselors as to what help they expect from the various supervisors in camp.

It is becoming a common practice at the close of camp to have each member of the camp staff prepare a critical appraisal of his total camp experience, with special reference to an analysis of his own job. This provides a body of recorded experience to guide the administration the following year.

The development of effective leadership will not make substantial advance until we have gathered much more data than we have now accumulated to indicate the duties or responsibilities of counselors, their frequency, what skills they require, their degrees of difficulty, and the points at which supervisory help is most needed. If a number of camps this summer would secure a time-activity schedule of their counselors for a week or even for one typical day, an encouraging beginning would be made.

Certain cautions ought to be sounded before leaving this general area. Job specifications should not be filed away and forgotten as soon as camp gets under way. They should be referred to regularly and checked against the counselor's performance and revised accordingly. There may be good reasons for making some radical re-adjustments within the staff. For instance, the camp director might find that his truck driver would be

much more successful as a counselor than one of his men already assigned to a group of boys. Job specifications are of no value whatsoever unless they are used and modified for use in the light of experience. One conspicuous advantage of using job specifications should be in avoiding a duplication of functions or an overlapping of responsibility among two or more members of the staff. This is practically essential before one can put into practice the principle of individual responsibility and accountability.

TRAINING CAMP COUNSELORS

This section of our discussion divides itself very naturally into two parts: (A) Pre-service, and (B) In-service.

(A) PRE-SERVICE

(1) *College courses.* New courses on camping are being inaugurated by colleges and universities each year. Most of these courses have stressed the development of athletics and campcraft skill. Principles of educational leadership have generally been neglected. If this Institute is unique in any sense, it is because it has placed central in its consideration the character education purposes and processes of the summer camp. These courses afford a splendid opportunity for pre-camp training. Camp directors might also encourage members of their staff to include in their courses of study such subjects as sociology, psychology, mental hygiene, education, etc. Such subjects should contribute largely to the educational equipment of a would-be camp leader.

(2) *The pre-camp training conference.* A director who has brought his staff together in camp for a week or even a week-end before camp opens has difficulty in understanding how anyone can undertake to guide a camping experience without first having had that pre-camp conference with his staff. It develops *esprit de corps* among the staff, creates harmony of purpose, understanding, and

generates enthusiasm for a joyous task.

(3) *Directed or guided reading.* Many camp directors are circulating books among their staff prior to the opening of camp. Mimeographed "chats with counselors" dealing with objectives, methods of dealing with boys, counselor functions, etc., are being sent out by a number of camp directors in order to orient each counselor-to-be in the camp life and method. A. E. Hamilton's *Letter to Counselors* is a splendid example of this sort of thing. Significant articles in reprint form might be distributed among the members of the camp staff. Many camp directors encourage their counselors to subscribe for *The Camping Magazine*, *Camp Life*, and certain other periodicals which contribute directly to the camp situation.

(4) *Work with groups of boys or girls throughout the year* gives training in leadership that will carry over into the camping field quite readily.

(5) *Special devices*, such as the application blank itself, a true-false test or a questionnaire may be used to advantage. For example, all the answers to a given question on the application blank might be summarized and sent out to the entire staff for study and comment. Individual staff members would see where they rank in relation to the other members of the staff. This undoubtedly would stimulate further thinking, especially if there were a wide difference in point of view.

(6) *The study of actual case records of campers.* Where possible, new counselors should be made familiar with the instruments which are used in camp in connection with the behavior guidance program. Folders on campers, containing background information, rating scales, test material, etc., should be placed in their hands for study. This should give them an insight into parents' objectives, typical behavior problems in camp, methods of dealing with them, and so forth.

(7) *Study and research commissions.*

Where there is a fair degree of permanence in a staff, study commissions can be appointed at the close of one camp season to carry on research, leading up to the following summer, when results of their study can be reported upon. Staff members who are attending college or doing post graduate work might undertake a research problem relating to camp for their dissertation or at least as a basis for a term paper.

(8) *Staff reunions.* A number of camps follow the practice of having staff reunions during the winter months. Others have regular meetings of their major staff persons for study purposes. Apart from their educational values, meetings of this kind produce good morale and *esprit de corps*.

(B) IN-SERVICE

The chances are that larger training results will be achieved in camp itself than through any pre-camp training process. Here you have actual practice in leadership under sympathetic and skilled supervision.

(1) *Contact and conference with trained supervisors* gives the counselor helpful guidance in making plans, meeting problems, locating resources, and achieving desirable behavior outcomes.

(2) *The counselors' meetings*, which in many camps are held daily during the camp season, offer an opportunity for members of the staff to share experiences together and to focus available resources around their individual or common problems. Such meetings may deal with the routine affairs of camp life, the basic principles of educational leadership, and vital issues that arise in the counselors' daily experience. Formal courses and the use of text books should be guarded against in situations of this kind. A steering committee representing the counselors helps keep the "business" of such meetings on the level of real concerns.

(3) *The devices and techniques of personnel guidance and program supervi-*

sion in camp are helpful in centering the attention of the counselor on the boy's needs, interests and purposes, and in making him aware of the important factors in personality growth.

(4) *Staff lodge and library.* Where a suitable retreat and library is available to a staff, it has been found that *esprit de corps* and leadership performance have been strengthened and improved.

(5) *Camp evaluation.* Written criticisms of the program and practices of the summer camping experience made by the leader just before he leaves for home is a completing step in the camp training process. It allows opportunity for evaluating the total experience.

DEVELOPING *Esprit de Corps*

In the unit on Program Development, considerable attention has been given the matter of grouping. Great stress has been laid on welding the living group, the tent or cabin, into a happy family of campers. Has it occurred to us that our camp staff presents substantially the same problem? Have we recognized the large importance of welding our camp staff, often made up of strangers at first, into a corps of comrades?

Judging from the perennial array of problems that arise to perplex camp directors, this process of unifying and developing *esprit de corps* within a staff is not well understood. We are all familiar with camps in which a strained relationship exists between the counselors and the directors, where cliques have sprung up, where the director or other major persons on the staff are hard to approach, where the chef presents a problem, or where the social life of the staff produces embarrassment to the administration.

One thing is certain. No special privileges or machinery of leaves is going to weld a staff into a group of comrades. Proper provision will have to be made for time off and recreation, to be sure, but more crucial, more essential than any

mechanical plan or organization, is the necessity of permeating the life of the staff with a spirit of friendliness and co-operation. With this in mind, let us take a look at some of the practices which obtain in some of our American camps.

(1) *Special staff functions.* In many camps provision is made for social get-togethers (cards, dancing, etc.) each week. Food is made available for the staff to prepare as they wish on certain nights of the week. When a member of the staff has a birthday during camp, a party is given for the staff or a special celebration is held in the dining lodge. In a few camps the staff on Sundays eat at the same table and the campers are left on their own for that occasion. In other camps counselors take turns in sitting at the "head table" with the camp director. Other camps encourage the staff to put on a special show for the entertainment of the camp. In still other camps, formal or semi-formal staff banquets are held in the middle and at the close of the camping season. Usually at functions of this kind elaborate programs and menu cards are prepared and items are included in the program which center attention on members of the staff. For instance, doggerel verse is prepared, one verse for each person on the staff, picking out some outstanding characteristic or happening in which he was involved. Two members of the staff might put on a little stunt depicting a scene twenty years later as they meet members of the staff at that time.

(2) *Leaves.* The method of scheduling leaves for members of the staff varies with the type of camp, location, and size. In most cases provision is made by carefully planned schedule. In some camps arrangements are made whereby large numbers of counselors are allowed out periodically at one time. One camp follows the practice of allowing the counselors all to go out one night, and then

at some subsequent time the counselors stay in camp and the major staff members go out. Another practice is to provide time off for each member of the staff every other day, when he may feel entirely free from responsibility.

(3) *Leaders' lodge.* The advantages of a leaders' retreat are obvious.

(4) *Special events.* Program spectacles, such as a pageant, a fake arrival of some dignitary, or a circus in which members of the staff lay aside their dignity and become clowns, Indians, cowboys, etc., often contribute much to the development of *esprit de corps*, not only among the members of the staff but throughout the entire camp.

(5) *Between-season get-togethers.* We have emphasized the importance of these meetings in a previous section. Here we might add the observation that some of these get-togethers might be held in camp during the winter months.

SUPERVISION AS GUIDANCE

Within recent years we have achieved a new understanding of supervision. We are beginning to recognize that the same "laws" of learning apply to counselor-director relations as apply to leader-camper relations. We are beginning to see that good supervision cannot be done by a "snoopervisor." A good supervisor is a helper and friend, not an inspector and boss.

We are not thinking here of that type of "supervisor" who is continually on the lookout for stray garbage, paper strewn around the cabin or campus, and repairs needed in the physical equipment. We are not thinking of the "supervisor" who makes inspections of the camp grounds and buildings during breakfast, giving the impression that he is spying rather than supervising. We are not thinking of the "supervisor" who feels it his main function to find fault and make criticisms or who feels that he can complete a supervision by rushing through a hasty

and formal inspection or interview. Rather, we are thinking of that type of *supervisor* who conceives his task to be co-extensive with the total camp process and life, physical and personal; who enters upon it as a sharing experience on the level of high fellowship; who balances complaint with commendation and enters significantly into the processes which he is himself observing.

Supervision, as guidance, separates itself into two different functions or methods; one dealing with what a supervisor should look for and how he should record his observations, and the second having to do with the whole process of coaching, demonstrating and interviewing, in order to help the person being supervised develop more effective leadership practices.

What should a supervisor look for? Here are a group of campers with their counselor working away making an Indian tepee. What are the important things in that kind of situation which a supervisor should observe? This leads us into a consideration of the counselor's function in relation to his boys. A brief quotation from *Camping and Character* will be excused at this point.

Two strands of current scientific thought flow together, giving a new conception of the nature and function of group leadership. (1) When education is conceived as the enrichment of experience through the purposeful pursuit of worthwhile ends, the function of the leader shifts from a dispenser of knowledge, or an autocratic master to a stimulator of purposeful enterprises from which will result the development of desirable attitudes, skills, knowledge, ideals and habits. The leader then must be in rapport with the purposes and wishes of the group members if he is effectively to stimulate and guide their behavior. (2) Leadership, when analyzed by the social psychologists, is also a group or social function and not merely a matter of personal quality. A leader is one who defines, stimulates and crystallizes the desires of the group, and who usually shares with the group in the effort to realize these purposes. Leadership is a function of social relations in which one person is superior as a stimulus in defining the way the group will behave.

If we accept this interpretation of leadership, we see, do we not, that the coun-

selor's specialized function is that of affording boys guidance in purposing, planning, executing, and judging enterprises. It follows, then, that the important thing for the supervisor to observe is whether or not the counselor, in the case of his group building an Indian tepee, is allowing his boys opportunity to purpose, plan, execute, and judge in that activity. Each time he makes a decision he robs his boys of an opportunity for development. To facilitate observation by the supervisor, certain instruments and record forms have been prepared. Collings, in *School Supervision in Theory and Practice*, has worked out a device for scoring activities on the points above mentioned. Abel J. Gregg has revised and modified Collings' device in terms of the camp situation. Another device has been developed at Camp Ahmek—a Scale for Evaluating Group Activity from the Standpoint of its Educational Processes. Although each of the above mentioned devices has certain values there is room for further experimentation in the use and development of such instruments.

The second phase of our problem has to do with coaching a counselor following the observation of his work with his group. Here is a counselor who makes all the decisions himself for his group. Here is another who is disliked by other members of the staff. Here is a third who has a boy who is afraid of the water and is at a loss to know what to do.

Three main methods lie at the disposal of the supervisor. First, directed coaching; second, demonstration; third, the interview. The procedure in dealing with an individual staff member is similar in principle to the procedure for the study and guidance of an individual problem camper. It involves having adequate background information concerning the counselor involved. It means locating a cause or set of causes lying back of the difficulty. And, lastly, it requires some

carefully developed plan of treatment or guidance. Within the limits of this presentation it will be impossible to discuss this process in detail. Persons wishing further discussion of this aspect of supervision may find rich resources by referring to some of the books listed in the bibliography provided.

MEASURING THE RESULTS OF SUPERVISION

The effectiveness of supervision can best be measured by the growth of counselors, which, in turn, can best be measured by measuring the growth of campers. The central aim of all supervision is the development of desirable attitudes, skills, abilities, appreciations, purposes, values, and habits, in growing campers.

A most enlightening chapter on "Evidences of the Value of Supervision" is contained in the recently published Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, entitled *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision*. An experiment in evaluating rural supervision in Oakland and Macomb counties, Michigan, is described.

In Oakland County the work of the teachers was carefully supervised by a county superintendent and three supervisors of instruction. A carefully planned program was carried out during the year, consisting of institutes, district meetings, supervisory visits and demonstrated lectures. Intensive work was done in the teaching of reading, arithmetic, language, and spelling. All teachers were informed in detail at the beginning of the year concerning the whole of the supervisory program. In Macomb County there were no supervisors of instruction. The work of the supervisors is therefore assumed to be the significant factor in causing any differences which appear in the result. The schools in the two counties were paired in such a way that the two groups were as nearly equivalent as possible, as far as pupils and teachers were concerned.

Standard achievement tests were used to measure pupil growth. These tests were administered in the fall of the year. In the spring the average scores were computed, the difference being taken as a measure of progress. From the testing

of thousands of pupils in all parts of the country, the normal amount of gain made by an average pupil in one year of school work is known. The actual gains made by the pupils in the experiment were expressed in percentages of the normal gain per school year. The average of all these percentages was for the supervised schools 170.8; for the unsupervised school, 97. This means that the pupils in the supervised schools of Oakland County, in the nine phases of the subject tested, accomplished 170.8 per cent of a normal year of school work, while the pupils in the unsupervised schools of Macomb County accomplished 97 per cent of a normal year of school work. The difference between these is 73.8 or 76 per cent; that is, the achievement of the supervised pupils was 76 per cent greater than the achievement of the unsupervised pupils. A similar experiment is reported by Ellsworth Collings in his book *An Experiment with a Project Curriculum*.

Not a great deal has been done in measuring supervision in camp. Dr. Dimock and I have reported on experiments at Camp Ahmek, where we used a leadership rating instrument and a behavior rating scale for campers. I have referred to both of these earlier in this statement. Those who are interested in a more detailed description of these instruments and their use, especially from the standpoint of measurement, can find them discussed in *Camping and Character*. A committee of Y. M. C. A. secretaries here in the Central Region is now formulating a performance record which we hope will help us discover the reliability of the leaders' rating device.

EXPERIMENTATION AND RESEARCH

In *Camping and Character* seventeen major problems have been listed for experimentation and research in the field of supervision. They constitute only the beginning of our task. Progress in camp personnel practice, however, awaits our

attack upon some of these most urgent problems. Following is a list of some of the more pressing problems which call for study.

- (1) *Selection.*
 - (a) What constitutes a successful camp counselor?
 - (b) Case studies of successful and unsuccessful counselors.
- (2) *Job specification.*
 - (a) Time analysis or diary.
 - (b) What help do counselors expect from supervisors?
 - (c) What qualities do counselors most appreciate in supervisors?
- (3) *Training.*
 - (a) What are the comparative results of various methods for training counselors?
 - (b) A study of counselors' meetings in camp.
- (4) *Observation and guidance.*
 - (a) The development of devices for the observation and evaluation of various methods and activities in camp.
 - (b) The development of record forms for making group case studies.
- (5) *Developing esprit de corps.*
 - (a) What are the best methods for building leadership morale?
 - (b) A study of practices relating to leaves.
- (6) *Measuring results.*
 - (a) The development of techniques for evaluating the efficiency of supervisors.
 - (b) Experimental use of the method for measuring changes in boys in skills, attitudes and other forms of behavior.

* * * * *

In conclusion, let us stress again that the essence of creative supervision is the

spirit in which it is conducted. To quote William H. Kilpatrick: "Joy in work, growth from work, a just wage, these

three must come or things are in so far wrong. This is respect for personality. These three democracy demands."

APPENDIX A

Instrument Used for Evaluation of Institute

The device used by the members for evaluating the Camp Institute is reproduced here in skeleton form. Space was provided under each sub-heading for the comment of the member. This does not show on the instrument as reproduced.

The instrument may have value: (1) in sug-

gesting a technique for evaluating Conferences, Institutes, etc.; (2) as a supervisory device in the summer camp. The form covers the various areas of the camp and indicates the aspects of these areas which must come under intelligent direction and control.

Evaluation of the Camp Institute

		Plan to continue present practice	Plan an advance on present practice	Did not get much help around this problem
I	PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT IN CAMP			
	1. Objectives. Comment:			
	2. Groupings. Comment:			
	3. Interests. Comment:			
	4. Cooperative Participation and Control. Comment:			
	5. Use of Ceremonials, Symbols. Comment:			
	6. Motivation. Comment:			
	7. Program Records. Comment:			
	8. Evaluation. Comment:			

Plan to continue present practice Plan an advance on present practice Did not get much help around this problem

II	DEALING WITH INDIVIDUALS IN CAMP			
1.	Devices and Methods for Securing Information about Campers. Comment:			
2.	Methods of Diagnosis and Observation of Campers. Comment:			
3.	Developing Insight and Understanding of Campers' Conduct and Personality. Comment:			
4.	Techniques and Principles of Personal Guidance. Comment:			
5.	Helping Counselors to Focus Attention on Specific Character Needs of Campers. Comment:			
6.	Methods of Appraising Character Changes. Comment:			
7.	Tying Up Camp Work With Year Long Experience of Camper. Comment:			
8.	Using Specialist on Personal Guidance in Camp or as Consultant. Comment:			

Plan to continue present practice Plan an advance on present practice Did not get much help around this problem

III	SELECTION, TRAINING AND SUPERVISION OF COUNSELORS			
1.	Selection. Comment:			
2.	Job Specification. Comment:			
3.	Training. Comment:			
4.	Observation and Reports. Comment:			
5.	Guidance (Coaching). Comment:			
6.	Development of <i>Esprit de Corps</i> . Comment:			
7.	Research. Comment:			
8.	Measuring Results of Supervision. Comment:			

APPENDIX B

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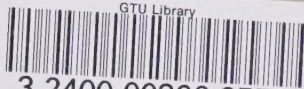
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